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between the Peoples of the British Commonwealth of Nations and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. The Society is a non-political organisation, founded in 1924, to diffuse information in both countries on developments in science, education, philosophy, art, literature, and social and economic life. It organises lectures, concerts, film shows, exhibitions, etc., and has the largest collection in Britain of information on cultural aspects of the U.S.S.R. Its library contains volumes in English and Russian, and members are entitled to take out books on loan, as well as to obtain reduced admission to many of the Society's functions and a reduced subscription to *The Anglo-Soviet Journal*. The minimum subscription is 5s. per annum.

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THIRTY YEARS THAT HAVE CHANGED HISTORY

By D. N. PRITT, K.C., M.P.

This issue of the *Anglo-Soviet Journal* coincides with the thirtieth anniversary of the U.S.S.R.. In the following article the Chairman of the S.C.R. pays tribute to the achievements of the Russian people in thirty fateful years.

THE last thirty years—1917-1947—have been among the most eventful, the most terrible, and the most glorious in history. They have witnessed the rise and fall of empires, the birth and military destruction of Fascism, millions of violent and cruel deaths, and the achievement of true liberty for scores of millions. They have been, on the whole, years of progress and advance, although the fight is far from done and there are some fearful losses in the reckoning.

For readers of this journal, naturally, first thoughts at this time turn on the thirty years of Soviet history—and in truth most of the world, willy nilly, has its mind full of the same topic.

What have the thirty years of Soviet history brought to the world? The builders began their great task on the ruins—made more ruinous by the first World War—of a poorly-developed industry and a backward agriculture, after the collapse of a savage and incompetent autocracy which had kept its peoples on the lowest imaginable standards of poverty and ignorance. To the almost insuperable problems inherent in such a beginning there was soon added invasion and civil war, with of necessity famine and epidemic.

These problems were solved one by one, and after a few years the resistance of the outer world to the new and growing Socialist state was confined in the main to economic and commercial boycott. By the time the thirty years were two parts run, the Soviet Union could see itself, and others could see it, for what it was and was destined to be. Politically, it was a peaceful and stable Socialist state, in a world of slumps and growing Fascism. Economically, it was a well-balanced agricultural-industrial union, affording its people a modest but secure and ever-improving standard of living; famine, for example, had fallen out of the currency of normal fears, for it was known to be, war apart, an impossibility. I well remember the jauntily-painted little bread-delivery vans that used to run round Moscow in 1936, with the word “bread” painted on their sides in *three languages*, as if to say: “You see me. I am with you for good”—and the proposal to distribute bread free was seriously considered, and would probably have been adopted had it not been for the growing expectation of the Second World War.

Culturally, the Soviet peoples had not merely become literate—in itself a mighty achievement—but the arts and sciences had made great strides, and the adventure of life was taking on ever newer and more varied forms.

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Already, then, ten years ago, the further forward march of the Soviet peoples was certain. There was for them one great shadow, and only one—the shadow of war. They had no illusions on that point, and no hesitations. Always convinced that before long one or more great powers would attack them, they sacrificed much immediate ease and advantage to build industries that could support the strain of modern war, and to train and equip the necessary fighting forces by land, air and sea.

The test of actual “shooting” war came in their twenty-third year. The story of their retreats, their resistance, their recoils, their victory, should be vivid in all our memories; seventeen months to the turning-point at Stalingrad, a little longer from then to the opening of the Second Front in Europe, a bare year more to victory in Europe; in all that time heroism, endurance, patience, skill, confidence, carried the many Soviet nations through unexampled suffering and destruction to a decisive victory in which they took a great share.

What did they face when victory was won ? And how did they face it ?

Their problems of reconstruction were immense ; but their strength lay in the fact that these were almost their only problems. The problems of crisis and slumps and unemployment and irreconcilable class-conflicts that torment other peoples were absent. They had, of course, to face, here and there, abuses and neglects and irregularities, but these were sporadic and incidental ; the new civilisation was free of conflicts of transition, free of the selfish anti-social interests and manoeuvres of landowners or industrial magnates, of the fears that haunt so many in the old regimes. All that the Soviet peoples had to do was to plan—as they had learned to plan—their reconstruction in the light of their resources of material and labour, to settle questions of priority, and to go ahead, fortified by their own skill and knowledge and enthusiasm. Even then, many of the tasks seemed almost superhuman ; but the remarkable progress that has been made shows that in time—and at the cost of considerable hardships—they will all be mastered.

If that is the bare outline of the story, what can we—the S.C.R. and the many people who share its views and hopes—note especially for our enlightenment in the story of these thirty years, and particularly of the last two or three ? I think there are two fields which we can study ; the cultural development—in the widest sense of the phrase—over the whole period, and the development of international relations over recent years.

In the cultural field, I do not write merely of intellectual, artistic, or scientific advances, remarkable as they are ; I look more at the growth of human dignity and culture, resting solidly on the indispensable basis of secure economic developments.

Few who have not lived through the horrors of prolonged mass unemployment can fully understand the awful sensation of uselessness, frustration and despair which it creates. I shall never forget the voice of a skilled North-East coast craftsman in the prime of life, with two years' unemployment behind him, like 30,000 of his fellow-workers in a town of barely 200,000 inhabitants, as he said to me : “ I suppose in the end they'll have to put us all on the pier, and push us off into the sea.” Peoples who can be rid of the fear of such frustration—not to mention the accompanying economic distress—for ever, who can even forget that there used to be such fears, are rid of a ghastly nightmare ; they are almost by that alone in another civilisation, where they can grasp the real meaning of freedom from exploitation.

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Again, a social and economic system which rejects the colour bar and all other forms of injustice to national minorities brings mighty support to cultural development. That people whose skin happens to vary in colour from a certain standard cannot for that reason be ill-treated, despised, underpaid, under-educated, boycotted, segregated, deprived of votes, or lynched, is no doubt bare elementary justice ; but the sincere maintenance of this piece of elementary justice is only fully known in the U.S.S.R. The addition to human dignity that this achievement alone represents is immeasurable.

The complete rejection of the economic and social inequality of women, still waiting to be won in many other developed countries, may seem less striking to those accustomed to the fairly high measure of *social* equality won by women in Britain ; but those who know the world outside Britain, and those who know industrial life in Britain, will alike agree that this principle of equality—long fully established in the U.S.S.R.—is another great service to the dignity and humanity of both women and men.

The value to human dignity of one other feature of the Soviet economic system should be noticed. Most of us have been brought up under a system which leaves the fate of industrial commercial and scientific development in the uncontrolled hands of timid owners of private wealth, who fear to take risks in enterprise and prefer rather to bind themselves to one another in cartels to prevent the adoption of new techniques, lest they reduce the value of their obsolete plant. This system is nicely called “ free enterprise ” ; under it millions have suffered the horrors of unemployment, and every citizen, every working day, does far more work than he need do, and produces less than he could do, because some machine or some process which could have greatly increased his production per hour has been stifled at birth or restricted in application in order to protect the vested interests of this “ free enterprise ”. It is only in the Soviet Union—at present—that the results of research can be freely applied in practice, without the fear of bringing about a slump or mass-unemployment, and with the knowledge that their

application cannot fail to lighten the toil and increase the wealth and happiness not only of the worker directly involved but of all citizens.

These are some of the achievements of the last thirty years. They give us a picture of ordinary people overcoming extraordinary difficulties with no advantages except those of their economic system, and advancing democratically not merely in material power but, far more strikingly even, in culture and dignity. Their great advances, and their consciousness of them, may have been one of the factors that enabled them to display that steel-hard resistance to the Nazi invaders which will constitute an epic of history even when wars have ceased.

What have the peoples of the Soviet Union to show, at this moment, as the result of their efforts, particularly in the last few years?

Tangibly, they show great progress in reconstruction, increased agricultural and industrial strength, the beginning of the end of rationing, a capacity to live and survive and develop not merely without loans but if necessary even with the barest minimum of imports, and a quiet and steady progress towards the fulfilment of the post-war Five Year Plan.

But the intangible gains are perhaps more remarkable. After the triumphant survival of the test of the Second World War, there is a confidence and a sense of security among the Soviet peoples that should hearten every human being and dismay only their enemies. It is manifested in many ways; their whole attitude and bearing, in small matters and in great; their pre-occupation with reconstruction and peaceful development, in contrast to the hysterical chatter of war that is heard in so many quarters; their steady demobilisation and reduction of military expenditure—in the face of all the tumult and the shouting, the percentage of their budget devoted to Defence is just half the corresponding figure in the U.S.A. budget; the confidence demonstrated by the delegation of the sovereign functions of foreign affairs and armed forces to the constituent republics; the recent abolition of the death penalty; their friendly help with supplies of foodstuffs to various countries in Europe. All these and many other points give clear indications of strength and supreme confidence.

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It is significant that this confidence remains undiminished in the face of the noticeable and sinister development of bad international relations in the last two to three years. That this development exists, no one doubts; one may ask: whose is the fault? We who work actively for the improvement of such relations, who have to scan with scrupulous critical sense the behaviour of all the countries concerned, and to form our own judgments with hard self-criticism, cannot find any difference, in outlook or desires or behaviour, between the Soviet peoples and government of the years of 1941-5, when Roosevelt and Churchill and the rest of the world were praising them in wholehearted words, and the Soviet peoples and government of 1947. They have the same understanding of what war is, the same desire to be rid of it for ever and to devote all their energies to reconstruction and further construction; and the same desire to keep on good terms if it be possible. How could they "change", as it is suggested they have changed? Change into warmakers? That would, for them, be to change into lunatics. It is much easier to believe that a few thousand powerful and scared people, in control of a great country far to the West of Moscow and a little way east of Vladivostok, who are uncertain of their own future, and terrified at once of the growing power of labour in their own country and of their insoluble economic problems, are to blame for the "change".

But the change is present, and strongly present in Britain, too. (That a "Labour" Member of Parliament should write a letter demanding a direct threat of war against the U.S.S.R. is bad enough; that *The Times* should print it is a sad measure of our descent.)

But our duty in the S.C.R. is to fight for better relations; and we have to analyse the causes of deterioration, not just to recriminate, but in order to be more efficient in improving matters. To that duty we devote ourselves; it is the greatest of duties, for it is the service of peace. We have been fulfilling it to the best of our ability for twenty-three years. We have much more to do; we have not finished; but we shall not pause or flinch.

SOVIET SCIENCE IN THE NEW FIVE-YEAR PLAN

This survey of the scientific problems which are to be dealt with by the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. in the next five years is the first comprehensive review to be published in English of the place of Soviet science in the post-war Five Year Plan. The survey is based mainly on a speech by Academician Vavilov, president of the Academy of Sciences, and is prefaced by interpretative comments by Professor J. D. Bernal.

FOREWORD

By J. D. BERNAL, F.R.S.

Professor of Physics, Birkbeck College.

THE document which forms the main part of this publication is one which should be of unusual interest to intelligent people in this country.

It is without a doubt the most complete picture of the scientific activity of the Soviet Union that has yet appeared, and because it is only in the Soviet Union that there has been this comprehensive survey and programme, it also represents the most complete picture of scientific effort anywhere in the world. Yet, long and complete as the picture is, it is far too short to give that detailed presentation which would be of the greatest interest to every specialist in the field of science; we only see the broad outline.

Of the actual plan itself no copy, as far as we have been able to find out, has reached this country or has been published outside the Soviet Union. The full draft plan was a document of some 1,500 pages. It is the result of some two years of general preparation and six months of detailed preparation by institutes throughout the Soviet Union, it is anything but a centralised blueprint. On the contrary, it was criticised at the Academy meeting because of certain elements of overlapping, irrational classification which necessarily arose from the way it was compiled by the staffs of the various institutes.

Even if we had the plan, however, we would be far from being able to put a measure to the scientific activities of the Soviet Union. The plan is that of the Academy, but besides the all-Union Academy of Sciences there are those of Agriculture and Medicine, of which this plan only deals with the more fundamental aspects. There is the scientific work in Universities and that, very largely applied, in the industrial institutes attached to the various ministries, besides a great deal of work undertaken by the academies of the separate Union republics, which, however, in their main lines are co-ordinated with that of the Soviet Academy.

Nevertheless, even an abbreviated account of this limited field of research is a most impressive document and one which contains all the more important sections of fundamental research. It is, of course, a plan and not a report. Hardly any names are mentioned and the work already done is only cursorily referred to by implication. For the most part, however, the proposals are

for the continuation and extension of work already in hand and they therefore also serve to give a picture of the present state of science as well as the future prospects of science in the Soviet Union.

The account presented here is in the main based on the speech made by Academician S. I. Vavilov, president of the Academy of Sciences and himself a distinguished physicist, particularly in the field of optics. The wide extent of his interest was shown last year by the paper he contributed to the Newtonian Celebrations in London, in which he was able to elucidate from the rare chemical publications of Newton how extremely far sighted his views were on the constitution of atoms.

Vavilov's speech is more than a recitation of a programme. He discussed, as can be seen throughout, the principles of the organisation and planning of research in the Soviet Union, and this discussion is very precious to us here, not only in removing misconceptions that have been prevalent in this country as to the nature of Soviet planning, but also in dealing with many difficulties of our own.

At the very beginning he deals with the fundamental problem raised by "those sceptics who consider that the formulation of scientific plans is useless and in fact an impossible problem", but points out that planning is now inevitable in science and in fact has long been practised by the most distinguished scientists in the past in their own work and in that of their schools. The fact that, admittedly, fundamentally new theories cannot be planned, is in his eyes no reason not to deal with the material and technical provision for scientific work and with the general development work raised by all major discoveries.

Further, he defines the function of the Academy as one which in our terminology would be called that of directing and carrying out fundamental research, but warns it to avoid two extremes, on the one hand of absorption in immediate practical problems and on the other of an academic and detached attitude.

Vavilov further discusses the relation of the technical work of the Academy with that of the industrial ministries, the equivalent in this country to research work in private industry and in the research associations. Here again he draws a distinction which is very much in the

forefront in this country, between generalised academic research, which we are here tending to call background research, and more particularly practically directed developmental and applied research. He points out that "between a wide so-called 'pure' scientific investigation and its technical introduction into practice there are always a number of intermediate and very important steps, which are in themselves very far removed from the stage of industrial application. Such steps, undoubtedly technical in substance, but still removed from the definite plant stage, should be developed within the academy of sciences and can undoubtedly be so developed with success. I will make this point clear by reference to the proposed scientific plan."

The other document of which use has been made to fill in parts more summarily dealt with in Vavilov's speech is that of Academician N. G. Bruevich introducing the plan of the Academy. These two documents, though covering the same field, are to a large extent complementary in that Bruevich's contains a number of general comments on other important aspects. He begins for instance by a reference to the world contemporary scientific field, particularly to the discovery of atomic energy, and rating almost equally with it the new methods of mechanical electronic computation.

But he notes that "we cannot repress a feeling of disquiet that, beyond our frontiers, individual groups of people, giving expression to reactionary interests, are attempting to utilise the great achievements of science and in particular the liberation of atomic energy, not for the benefit and good of mankind but to its evil and as a means to the oppression and enslavement of other peoples." This in brief represents the attitude which Soviet scientists take to the world of science outside their frontiers, and we would be doing our best service for the cause of science and humanity if we could secure a situation in which such things could not even be imagined.

Turning to the plan itself, what is most remarkable is that in the fields of physical, biological

and social sciences the major interests shown and particularly the points of greatest promise, for the most part are essentially those that we ourselves have recognised in this country as a result of our war experience. Soviet science is not something remote and different from science outside. There is only one science, just as there is only one interlocked technique through which that science reaches ordinary life. The difference is that in the Soviet Union, its many disadvantages tragically increased by the destruction of the war, the workers have given more attention to the whole problem and are more conscious of its inter-relations.

Merely to read through the Soviet plan is an education in science that brings out new interactions. There is no suggestion of overbalance in favour of immediate practical needs.

Consciousness of the whole picture makes it impossible to neglect the fundamental aspect. At the same time, however, the linking of the economic and technical needs of the Union is always kept in view. Here they have the great advantage that the scientific plan is an integral part of the general plan of the Union, and it was discussed as such in two full meetings of the Council of Ministers of the Union.

Science will indeed have come of age in this country when our Parliament is able to show anything like the same attention to scientific progress. The industrial part of the programme is of particular interest to us here, engaged as we are in a heroic attempt to raise our productivity, and we can only wish for more information than the brief catalogue provided.

It is to be hoped that whatever the difficulties of the world position, we as scientists in this country and in other countries outside the Soviet Union will maintain the unity of science which includes its workers. We must appreciate and use the example the Soviet scientists have set us, and try ourselves in our own countries to secure a free, active and co-ordinated scientific effort for human welfare.

Academician Vavilov's Speech

THE presidium presents for the consideration of the general meeting a plan for the scientific work of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. for the next five years.

With this plan we reply to the guiding instructions of comrade Stalin given at the meeting of electors of the 9th February, 1946, and to the requirements from science made in the law relative to the five year plan for the restoration and development of industry and economy in the Soviet Union in the years 1946-1950.

The Supreme Soviet has laid down that the fundamental task of the five year plan is "the restoration of the devastated areas of the country, to restore the pre-war level of industry and agriculture and then to surpass this level by a wide margin."

With this directive there are necessary conditions for the fulfilment of the plan. All science of the Soviet country and especially the scientific

organisations of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. are especially concerned with item 3. This item lays down that "The utmost technical progress shall be accomplished in all the branches of the national economy of the U.S.S.R., as a condition necessary for the marked increase of production and of the productivity of labour, for which purpose it is necessary not only to catch up with but to overtake, in the near future, the achievements of science beyond the boundaries of the U.S.S.R."

Many pages of the law relating to the five year plan contain quite definite requests to scientific and engineering brainpower. There has been planned for 1950 a high level of production in all the main branches of industry, such as cast iron, steel, coal, petroleum, electric power, timber and building materials, food products. It is thus necessary to anticipate the development of new technical methods and novel solutions of production problems in all these industries.

On reading the five year plan we find, for

example, tasks such as the following :—the development of geological prospecting, especially in the eastern regions of the U.S.S.R. ; the further mechanisation of the manual processes in blast furnaces and open-hearth furnaces and in rolling mills, the development of the utilisation of low-grade ores ; the widespread introduction of new methods of power engineering in electric power stations (such as the utilisation of high temperature and pressure steam), to carry out scientific research on and to accomplish in practice the transmission of direct current electric power over large distances ; the organisation of the production of electron microscopes in order to make them available for the work of scientific research institutions, to accomplish and develop the mass production of new types of microscopes, spectral analytical equipment, cinematograph projectors and cameras, ordinary cameras, field glasses, making use for this purpose of new achievements in optics ; to accomplish the further development of broadcasting ; to reconstruct Leningrad as a major industrial and cultural centre of the country, etc., etc.

All these are straightforward demands to science and engineering. The accomplishment of the new Stalin five year plan is only feasible if there is a large scale mobilisation of scientific and engineering research brainpower.

The Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. had already realised in the last years of the war that it would inevitably have to deal with important and comprehensive problems in the post-war peace years. In preparation for this the Academy, in 1944, set about the preparation of guides to the fundamental problems in the sphere of science, these problems being presented according to the system normally used by the Academy. These guides did much to lighten the labours of those who compiled our five year scientific plan.

The aim of my lecture is to give to the general meeting an idea of our projected five year scientific plan and of its majestic scope in, so to speak, a bird's-eye view.

Before beginning it is worthwhile once more to clarify an old but still not obsolete question of principle. Even today there are sceptics who consider that the formulation of scientific plans is useless and, in effect, an impossible problem. Such sceptics repeat the lines of the poet A. K. Tolstoi : "The course of science is not in our power, we can but sow the seeds of knowledge".

Of such scepticism, the following may be said. First of all, even the activity of such individual scientists as Newton, Darwin, Pavlov arose, as is testified by documents, from a plan, formed by them in their youth and which was accomplished only towards the end of their lives. In the enormous modern scientific institutions, among which may be reckoned our Academy, it is obvious that it is not possible to work without a plan. This is true of the scientific part of our activities and, in an even more elementary and obvious manner, it is true of questions relating to the structure of our Academy, to construction of buildings, to equipment, to the training of young scientists.

Of course, one cannot plan the discovery of theories relating to natural selection, the periodic system of the elements or the structure of the atomic nucleus. Nevertheless, each of these major discoveries immediately gave rise to the possibility, and in fact the sheer necessity, of formulating a plan covering a period of many

years and a large number of scientists. A consciousness of the firm link between our work and the growth of our government makes a scientific plan inevitable.

The document submitted for the examination of the general meeting has been compiled in an abbreviated and concise form ; it is, however, massive, containing approximately 1,500 pages. It is worthy of note that behind this voluminous précis there are the developed and much more detailed plans and programmes of our scientific institutions.

The institutes and sections naturally endeavoured to prepare their plans in accordance with the law relating to the five year plan, but they were unable to overlook the special nature of the scientific work of the Academy. Branch institutes can, and often must, give immediate and fully satisfactory scientific replies to industry and agriculture through ministries. The main task of the Academy is to find solutions to wide fundamental problems, thus assisting in the solutions required by branch specialities and concrete cases.

For instance, the Academy in striving to assist broadcasting must concern itself with complex questions regarding the theory of the propagation of radio waves, but it is not concerned with, nor capable of, the design of new types of radio transmitters and receivers. In its work the Academy of Sciences must avoid two extremes : on the one hand the transformation of its institutes into branches of industry and on the other divorce of theory from practice and a "head in the clouds" attitude. A trend in the first of these directions would mean the practical disappearance of the Academy as a specific scientific organ whilst the second alternative would be equivalent to the Academy becoming in a large degree useless to the government.

It is not always easy to find the right road in such a situation, but, insofar as I am capable of judging, our institutes and sections are in the main taking the correct line. Thus, our Institute of Physical Chemistry, which is sometimes concerned with very general and apparently abstract questions, such as for example with the problem of the structure and properties of surface films of materials, will closely link its work with attached institutes or else directly with industry. Research on the physics of dielectrics in the physical institute, which is so-called "purely academic", gives at the same time a new basis for electrical industry and is connected with factory workshop practice. Investigations on the ecology and evolution of plants are such as in many cases to obtain direct application in agriculture.

Naturally it is not difficult to find weak spots in the plan of the Academy of Sciences, i.e., the uncertain development of some problems which are of importance either to industry or agriculture. We admit this and are trying to correct it, but it must be borne in mind that the tasks of the Academy of Science are many and varied. Many of the weak spots are linked up with the fact that we are lacking in experts and that there are inadequate material foundations in these fields.

The circumstances of the government five year plan lay at the base of our scientific academic plan. But science, arising out of the needs of practice and justifying to practice its existence by the provision of useful results has at the same time its own particular "logic". Science is always a system, it cannot develop separately,

patchily and only in response to external stimuli. Science plans much for the future and it often happens that a decade passes before its results are in fact appreciated and enter into everyday life.

The teaching of Maxwell relative to electromagnetic waves was put forward in the 'sixties of the last century, whilst radio only came into existence at the end of the century. The idea of the atomic nucleus was put forward already by Newton, the disintegration of the atom was discovered by Becquerel 50 years ago and it is only today that the whole world has understood the meaning of nuclear energy. That is why in our plan, in addition to immediate answers to the demands of the government five year plan there is to be found its own inner line of development, not departing from practical needs and finding its roots therein but, at the same time, striving considerably beyond.

The basis of the research activities of the Academy in all sections of natural science, technology and the humanities forms a system of philosophical approach and conviction. For us this system, a contemplation of the world on the basis of dialectic and historical materialism, arises from the teaching of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin. We do not consider dialectic materialism to be a stationary, unchanging dogma. By the very nature of its philosophy dialectic materialism is a system which is continually developing and being formulated by the measure of its historical development and by the measure of the development of our knowledge of and mastery over nature.

The Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., contemplating the fulfilment of an enormous task relative to questions of natural science, is fully justified in placing as a cornerstone of its plan problems of philosophy, contemporary natural science; likewise questions of logic and the theory of social development. We are anxious that the philosophy of dialectical and historical materialism should enter more closely and definitely into the science that is being created and developed by us. We are striving towards the aim that the philosophy of dialectical materialism should make an appearance on the world stage on a wide front in the form of a fully developed undeniable argument, ready for criticism and to fight against other opinions which are alien or hostile to us.

MATHEMATICS

MATHEMATICS is directly linked to problems of philosophy and logic; it is likewise absolutely essential to natural science, technology and such branches of social science as economics. Much in our five year plan in the mathematical field is clearly directed to the assistance of other science.

Such questions as the theory of probability, convergence, especially in the handling of experimental results, investigations in the field of equations with fractional products and especially what may be called "machine

mathematics", i.e., the solution of mathematical problems by the aid of calculating equipment, belongs to this class.

Calculating machines have been known almost from pre-historic times. However, never before has man attained such power and scope in "machine mathematics" as in recent years. New equipment, based on mechanical, electrical and even on electronic tube principles permit of the solution of the most difficult problems in the field of mathematics, which are derived from engineering and the various branches of natural science. Truly one may say, with a slight degree of exaggeration, that we are approaching that Utopian period when all that will remain of mathematics will be the setting of equations; the solution will be accomplished by machines. We are planning already in the near future to concentrate on work dealing with problems of "machine mathematics", which will be carried out in a special institute of the section of technical sciences.

However, the machine will never be a substitute for creative mathematics and for mathematical genius. The distinguishing factor of mathematics, of higher mathematics, is its daring and imagination in conjunction with severity and criticism. Such a creative new mathematics, often not finding for a considerable time a direct technical application, has always been cultivated in our Academy, and its development must continue on a broad basis. As examples, non-Euclidean geometry, tensor calculations, the theory of groups, however abstract and removed from reality these mathematical regions may appear to be, all at once at a certain stage in the development of science assume a vital importance.

That is why in the five year plan of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. there is to be found the problem of the analytical method of the theory of numbers, research in the field of abstract algebra and topology, the inner geometry of surfaces, the theory of multiples, methods of mathematical logic and other abstract questions. We are convinced that this work "in the future" will, in its time, likewise attain great practical significance for the development of natural science and technology.

PHYSICS

IN the era of atomic energy, radio-location, jet propulsion, telemechanics, etc., it is hardly necessary to explain the exceptional importance of physics in our five years plan.

Physics, in addition to its natural inflexible inner development, has attained a vital significance as the basis of many other sciences and as the foundation of the main divisions of the new technology. The guiding idea of contemporary physics, in fact that of all natural science, is the problem of the inner structure of matter, the problem of elementary particles, their variety, properties and mutual interaction, problems of the structure of the nucleus of chemical atoms, of the outer envelope of such atoms, problems concerned with the structure of molecules, crystals and liquids.

A major place in the plan is devoted to the physics of the atomic nucleus and cosmic rays. But it is not only the atomic nucleus that is of interest and of practical importance; for those numerous technical and production problems which are brought out by the government five year plan there is especial importance to be attached to the advance of our knowledge in the field of the aggregate state of matter, i.e., of liquids and solid bodies. In accordance with this there is included in our plan the investigation of crystals, of the nature of liquids, of solid dielectrics, of semi-conductors, of metals and the physics of amorphous solid bodies.

The plan of work calls for a considerable increase in the investigations on luminescence. The properties possessed by certain bodies of luminescing under the influence of various factors have been known for a long time. Certain luminescent compounds have the power of converting ultra-violet rays, invisible to the human eye, into visible illumination. A further study of questions of luminescence and the investigation of various luminescent compounds will permit of the extensive development of gas filled lamps, which may lead to economy in the utilisation of electrical energy by reducing the amount of the latter employed to a half or a third.

For the direct conversion of thermal energy into electricity thermocouples are employed. The efficiency of present-day thermocouples is very small, thus excluding their use in power practice. It is to be hoped that a profound physical study of semi-conductors may allow of the efficiency of thermocouples to be raised sufficiently to permit their being effectively used as a source of power.

A series of problems of the five year plan is devoted to the comprehensive study of the properties of matter, in order to be able to produce new materials having desired properties. A further study of new electrical insulating materials, that have already been produced, is called for.

A wide application in technology is to be found for glasses, enamels, tars, ceramics, plastic materials and plastics generally which are characterised by a complex molecular structure. The investigation of the properties of such bodies will uncover the possibility of preparing new materials that will facilitate the solution of difficult engineering problems. There is also planned the comprehensive examination of crystalline bodies which are characterised by their anisotropical and symmetrical structure. The examination of the properties of matter at temperatures approaching absolute zero will be continued.

An important group of problems deals with the physics of metals. It is proposed to develop a fundamental theory regarding the interchange reactions of electrons in metals. The study of electrical, magnetic and electromagnetic properties of alloys is on the programme, as is also the determination of the relationship between the properties of alloys and the distribution of electrons among the energy levels within the crystalline lattice. At the same time there will also be carried on extensive investigations dealing with the mechanical properties of metals.

Present-day physical methods are essentially adequate, simple and convenient for investigating the composition and structure of materials. Spectroscopic analysis allows of the speeding-up

and improvement of various technical processes since analysis of the material can be carried out during the course of the process. Application is also beginning to be found for combined light scattering in practice. Work within the next few years will include the further development of spectral, luminescent and other optical methods of analysis of materials and the extension of the application of such methods both in the field of other sciences, particularly chemistry, biology and medicine, and also in industry.

CHEMISTRY

CONTEMPORARY chemistry, in some of its aspects, and those among the most important, approaches to and is not easily separated from physics. The view of chemistry as a science concerned with the transformation of matter has long been obsolete, having lost its generalising significance, and has now a limiting meaning.

Indeed such processes as the excitation or ionisation of atoms and molecules, the breakdown of atomic nuclei, the conversion of light into electrons and *vice versa* belong traditionally to the sphere of physics. However, in our plan many of them are frequently referred to physics. Such a classification must, of course, be taken as only provisional and bearing in mind the above-mentioned intimate links between physics and chemistry.

At the head of our five year plan for chemistry there stands the investigation of molecular structure and the theory of chemical bonds, based on modern quantum mechanical views. To such investigations belong essentially problems of photochemistry, of the nature of chemical processes occurring under the influence of light and of X-rays, etc. It would appear that such phenomena are destined to play in the near future a different and much more important part than they have played in the past. An important part in the plan is reserved for electrochemical adsorption processes, for problems of colloidal chemistry, questions of surface activity, which likewise are substantially those of the classical field of physics.

Every word and expression which I am here enumerating nearly always covers in itself a wide field with a big theoretical perspective and of important practical consequences. Successful research in these fields (for example in electrochemistry, colloidal chemistry, studies in adsorption) are often the prerequisite conditions for the development of important sections of the government's five year plan.

The plan further mentions the development of fundamental questions of the kinetics of chemical reactions under various conditions and the closely linked problem of chemical catalysis. Behind this "intermediate" zone between chemistry and physics there lies an enormous list of purely chemical problems, using the term "chemical" here in its normally accepted meaning. Numerous problems of inorganic chemistry are laid out; it must be admitted that the development of inorganic chemistry has, up to

the present, been inadequate in the U.S.S.R. In the plan there is clearly to be seen the trend, shown in its time by the work of N. S. Kurnakov and L. A. Chugaev; there is also provision for investigations in completely new directions.

It is unnecessary to stress the importance of scientific research in organic chemistry in the next few years. There is here the basis for many various types of industry and moreover it is in the field of organic chemistry that we must seek light towards many important problems of biology and medicine. In our plan, together with the traditional investigations on organo-metallic compounds, there is projected much research on the chemistry of high molecular substances (also to a certain extent a traditional trend) and on biogenetic substances. The plan draws the attention of our chemists to the theoretical bases of chemical technology.

The chemical institutes of the section are in close contact with the institutes of the physico-mathematical section and together they will pay close attention to nuclear processes of the transformation of natural and artificial elements, to the chemistry of isotopes and radioactive elements and, especially, their application to the solution of various problems connected with the mechanism of chemical reactions.

BIOLOGY

THE chemistry of high molecular and biogenetic compounds acts in our plan as an important link between chemistry and biology. Among the first problems of the biological plan we come across the problem of protein compounds, investigations on the physico-chemical basis of vital processes, problems of biosynthesis and urgent problems relative to antibiotic substances.

The views and methods of physics and chemistry are penetrating ever deeper into the specific sphere of biology, especially in the study of heredity, to which latter our plan, of course, devotes a considerable amount of attention. The part played by physics and chemistry is likewise of great importance in the study of the mutual interactions of an organism and its medium. There is no doubt that in the next few years, in the sum total of the co-operation of biological sciences with physics and chemistry, based on the techniques of one or other of these sciences, there will be important discoveries in the field of vital processes which, it is to be hoped, will be markedly reflected in medicine and agriculture and which will, in their turn, enrich chemistry and physics.

First among these, providing a wide picture, is the trend of research connected with protein problems. These studies will be directed both with regard to the structure of proteins as investigated by methods of synthesis of protein models in the form of high molecular protein-like bodies, and also by means of the isolation and study of individual tissue proteins, both with regard to an elucidation of the catalytic role of

proteins in the action of various enzymes and with respect to biological energy changes.

Moreover, attention will be paid to the protein metabolism of the cell and the significance therein of individual cell structure; the physico-chemical properties of various virus proteins will also be examined and the phenomenon of their auto-reproduction studied.

A second direction in which research must be strongly developed within the next five years is the study of the chemical and physical bases of the life process, with the chemical and physical characterisation of the living substrate, based on modern methods of determining the chemical and physical functions both of the animal and plant organism and the effect thereon of external factors, especially radiations of various types.

Closely allied with the above direction is the problem of biosynthesis, which includes the question of photosynthesis, secondary syntheses in plants, the synthesis of compounds in animal organisms and the biosynthesis of vitamins.

Within the relatively near future we may expect to hear of marked advances in the field of heredity, both as regards the control of changes in plant heredity and the understanding of the mechanism of heredity itself by means of a study of the cytogenetical basis of the sexual process and of reproduction, and also with respect to the development of the theoretical basis for the methods for the selection of plants.

A large portion of the plan for biological sciences is devoted to the sphere of ecology investigating the reaction of an organism to its medium and unfolding the significance of its morphological and physiological characteristics in the adaptation of the organism to the conditions of its existence.

A series of scientific centres are working on such questions (in respect of the higher plants and animals and also of microbes and parasites); the data obtained is being utilised not only for the understanding and directing of contemporary nature but also to establish the part played by ecological relationships of organisms in their evolution, in order to group together ecological and evolutionary studies.

The question of the mutual competition between micro-organisms has been considered in the plan as a separate trend of research. The study of the anti-biotic bodies of micro-organisms is of very great practical importance (the obtaining of therapeutic substances of the penicillin type) and this problem can only be adequately surveyed by the joint action of the sections of biological and chemical sciences with the medical group of the Academy's members and corresponding members.

The study of the flora and fauna of the U.S.S.R. will occupy a prominent place in the five year plan, special attention will be paid to the elucidation of their origin and to the study, from the point of view of flora and fauna, of the regions which have been newly incorporated in the U.S.S.R. Work on the knowledge of the change in the flora and fauna of the U.S.S.R., being a problem of considerable importance in the post-war period (in connection with the restoration of the flora and fauna of entire devastated regions and the bringing to life again of thousands of villages from ashes) has been made a separate task. It includes problems of the introduction of plants, the restoration of inhabited places (from the point of view of plant growth) and the acclimatisation of animals.

The problem of evolution remains, of course, the problem at the heart of our biological plan. Study is concentrated on questions of the integrity of the organism, philogeny, new fields in the investigation of the evolution of physiological and biochemical processes. Up to the present in the study of the evolutionary process fundamental attention has been paid to the problem of the evolution of shape. In Soviet science and especially in the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. much attention has been directed to the study of the rules governing the development of the perfection of physiological processes, which gives a clue to the correct interpretation of the working of the human organism.

Therefore all the physiological organisations of the Academy are to develop work on evolutionary problems of stimulation, neuro-muscular function, endocrine balance and regulatory mechanism and the internal media both of the organism as a whole and of individual organs and tissues. The continuation of the Pavlov line of research on the more important problems of the physiology of higher nervous activity is assured in the new five-year plan. There is yet too much to be done in this field. To it are joined certain questions of psychology which will be examined in the institute of philosophy ; such problems include the pre-history of human consciousness, the psycho-physiology of the sense organs, the progress from perception to thought.

Inasmuch as a number of institutes of the section are directing their labours towards a scientific solution of the problems involved in the production of good and steady harvests all such work has naturally been made the subject of a single directive. It is concerned with the multitudinous aspects of mineral nutrition and the use of fertilisers, the fundamental transformation of soil, the basis of artificial irrigation, the utilisation of growth substances, the acceleration of ripening, etc. ; this work should yield definite results of importance within the next five years.

ASTRONOMY

IN our rapid survey of the main outlines and trends of the proposed scientific plan of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. for the next five years, we must now leave behind us atoms, molecules, crystals, living organisms and go from them to the vast cosmic masses of matter, to the field of astronomy.

In this connection it must be mentioned that if for the whole sphere of knowledge the question of material equipment is of the utmost importance, then for astronomy it is an essential condition of existence.

Moreover, not one of our sciences suffered such an enormous material loss as a result of the Hitler aggression as did astronomy. The main observatory, at Pulkovo, was completely destroyed. The Simeisk observatory was almost utterly ruined. Many other astronomical centres suffered very severely. It is thus evident that the reconstruction of observatories is the central task of our astronomy in these five years.

The Soviet government has gone a long way towards meeting the needs and wishes of the astronomers and we hope that in five years we shall succeed in restoring the material basis of astronomy in a manner worthy of the Soviet Union. For this purpose the assistance of many research organisations will be required ; among them, and outside our group, is the State Optical Institute of the Ministry of War. The aid of the Soviet optical-mechanical and machine tool industry will likewise be essential.

However, even with the very modest means of observation which our astronomy possesses at present, it will be possible, with the help of astronomers and theoretical astro-physicists, to bring into being the investigation of several important astronomical problems. It is proposed to investigate the dynamics and structure of star systems and meta-galactics, the physics of stellar atmospheres, the physics of the sun, and cosmology of the solar system. Work will be carried out on problems of celestial mechanics, on the general theory of the perturbed motion of planets, on the study of the movements of the planetoids and comets. The very important and useful work of compiling the "Astronomical Annual" will be continued.

SCIENCES OF THE EARTH

THE plans of our geophysicists, geologists and geographers are devoted to the investigation of the terrestrial globe and more particularly to that sixth part of its land area which is occupied by the Soviet Union.

Unfortunately we apparently seem to be a long way from formulating a unified science regarding the globe. The geophysicists will, of course, continue actively to investigate the complex problem of the physical properties of the three terrestrial envelopes, the solid, liquid and gaseous. Provision is made for the study of the inner structure and physical properties of the globe, the mechanism and causes of tectonic movements, the mechanics of earthquakes, questions relating to the seismic territories of the Soviet Union, the electrical and magnetic poles of the earth and the development of geophysical methods of prospecting for useful minerals.

In the field of the physics of the sea the theory of marine currents is to be investigated, as is that of the tides ; storms and their effect on the seashore are to be examined, and also the important question of thermal and dynamic relationships between oceans and continents.

In the department of aerology there will be continued the investigation of the structure and composition of the stratosphere and ionosphere, the examination of evaporation processes, of condensation and the formation of precipitates in the free atmosphere. A large amount of work is envisaged on optical methods of investigating the atmosphere, especially on the method of searchlight sounding. Theoretical work will be carried out on atmospheric turbulence, on

[continued on page 45.]

ENGLISH INTERPRETERS OF RUSSIA

by ALLEN HUTT

IN the early part of the nineteenth century the English view of Russia was largely determined by the writings of a series of stubborn and usually opinionated travellers, mostly of some standing as men of learning in our ancient Universities.

It must be confessed that these worthy Dons of Oxford or Cambridge were by no means as well informed or so sympathetic as their successors, the historians and publicists of the concluding half of the century; nevertheless their personalities and their work possess a certain historical significance.

It was, in any event, the Great Age of the English traveller, a period when the Grand Tour of Europe was still held necessary for any Englishman of means and culture. Most indefatigable, and most famous, of these travellers was Dr. Edward Clarke, of the University of Cambridge, where he was Professor of Mineralogy. Clarke was a considerable academic and scientific personage, associating with the great pioneer scientist Sir Humphrey Davy and others; he appears to have been a man of great personal integrity and charm and of no mean literary ability.

On his travels, however, the amiable Doctor appeared totally unable to restrain his English chauvinism. He made his longest journey, lasting from 1799 to 1802, through Europe, Asia Minor, Egypt, Greece, in a perpetual state of rage against the un-English customs and ways of life that he naturally encountered.

This expressed itself particularly during his extensive trip through Russia, the account of which formed the first of the six monumental quarto volumes of "Travels in Various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa" which he subsequently published. "Clarke's Travels" rapidly became a European best-seller; it went through many editions in this country, and was translated into French, German and other languages; for it the author received from the publishers the then astonishing sum of close on £6,000.

GREATEST attention was concentrated on the volume on Russia, which was eulogised by some and—because of its angrily critical tone—sharply attacked by others. The fact was that, visiting Russia at the worst period of the depressing regime of Paul, Clarke seemed incapable of distinguishing between Russian society and Paul's crazy and Germanised regime.

Many passages in his work, therefore, convey the impression of hostility to Russia as a country

and to the Russian people. In fairness to Clarke, however, it should be recalled that he said in one of his letters: "he should be glad to like the Russian people if the Tsar's Government would let him."

Despite Clarke's choleric tone it remains true that his Russian volume managed to convey a great deal of reasonably objective information and that, for example, he devoted space to respectful praise of the great Field-Marshal Suvorov, printing in full a literal translation of Suvorov's famous "Catechism".

A contemporary of Clarke's, from the rival University of Oxford, was John Thomas (later Bishop) James, whose "Journal of a Tour in Russia and Poland" was first published in 1816, and enjoyed a marked popularity, rapidly running through three editions. James was one of the first English visitors to Russia after the War of 1812, and his whole approach was far more sympathetic than that of Clarke; particularly interesting is his account of the beginnings of the energetic reconstruction of Moscow after the fire.

The generation which was brought up to regard Clarke's "Travels" as an authority on Russia usually coupled with his name that of Robert Lyall. A medical man and a botanist of repute, Lyall was more than a mere traveller through Russia, since he practised there as a doctor for a number of years and was a member of the Physico-Medical Society of Moscow. He was a good Russian scholar, and a lengthy and intelligent "Dissertation on the Russian Language" formed part of his principal work, "The Character of the Russians and a Detailed History of Moscow" published in 1823.

Lyall adopted a critical attitude to various aspects of Russian society, notably in respect of serfdom; but he sharply rebutted Clarke's tendency to be over-critical and to draw sweeping conclusions from isolated instances. His own "Travels in Russia", which included the Crimea, the North Caucasus and Georgia, and was published in 1825, was far superior to Clarke from the standpoint of objective observation.

Of the miscellaneous English travellers to Russia during this period there is little to be said. Most of them only visited Petersburg and Moscow, where they moved exclusively in aristocratic circles and their impressions, when published, were superficial and unimportant. Even so, some had their amusing side. This was most noticeable in Thomas Raikes's "Visit to St. Petersburg in 1829-30", where the author—a famous dandy and fashionable Clubman—wrote in comically pompous and patronising terms of his meeting with "the celebrated Pushkin, the Byron of Russia". The principal thing that appeared to impress Raikes (who was a Governor of the Bank of England) about the immortal Pushkin was that "he can always command ten roubles for every line from his publisher"!

CONSIDERABLY more interest and value attaches to the writings of those more long-term visitors who spent most of their time travelling through the countryside and staying in provincial towns. Their impressions were at once more realistic and more friendly and understanding.

Among them may be noted two religious propagandists, Ebenezer Henderson and Robert Pinkerton, associated with the English-inspired Bible Society, an evangelical body alternately encouraged and suppressed in the reigns of Alexander and Nicholas I; their "Travels" appeared in 1826 and 1833 respectively.

In 1839 there were published Robert Bremner's "Excursions in the Interior of Russia" and Lister Venables's "Domestic Scenes in Russia". Venables, a clergyman of the Church of England, spent a year in the Tambov Gubernia; he reached the frank conclusion that "it seems impossible that the country should attain to the blessings of freedom without passing through the ordeal of a fierce revolution."

The last two travellers who we need to particularise were both medical men; and, in fact, were teacher and pupil. First came Dr. Augustus Bozzi Granville, a physician and savant of European celebrity, by birth Italian, who had settled in England after some years as a British Navy doctor. Dr. Granville was a medical politician, organiser and innovator of the first order; he was the first to introduce the use of iodine; and he was a member of a score of learned societies all over Europe, including the Royal Society of London and the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg.

This brisk and indefatigable character bustled into the Capital for a few weeks at the close of 1827; and from his pen there duly appeared, the next year, two fat volumes entitled "St. Petersburg", of which it may at least be said that they constituted a copious and lively guidebook.

On his specific professional interests, the organisation of hospitals and of medical service generally, they were something more than that. But on the whole the good Dr. Granville did little more than give way to impassioned eulogy of Nicholas I and his regime (going out of his way was to express his horror with the Decembrists!). He was a snob, as his constant approving references to the *bon ton* of Petersburg show.

He was duly taken to task by his pupil, Dr. Edward Morton, a young physician who worked for Count Vorontsov in Odessa, and wrote (in 1830) his "Travels in Russia". This book gave a more critical picture of Nicholas's regime and, for example, referred with understanding to the political role of Pushkin and the Tsar's hostility to him. It also contained the first detailed account of Odessa, its foundation, its history and prospects, to appear in English.

DURING the second half of the century, a remarkable band of British newspaper correspondents, publicists and historians endeavoured to bring home to their fellow-countrymen a true and friendly understanding of Russia and the Russian people.

The names of most of them are today but little remembered; yet of all it could fairly be said

that they bore out the truth of the old saying that "there is a sympathy between the natures of the two countries".

First in point of time we have Henry Sutherland Edwards (1828-1906), a prominent journalist and playwright of his day. From 1848 onwards a leading collaborator of *Punch*, Britain's most famous humorous journal, Edwards scored on the serious side of journalism as special correspondent of *The Times* in Poland (1863) and in the Franco-Prussian war. Before that he had spent a considerable time travelling in Russia, and in 1861 published "The Russians at Home".

This was a shrewd and popular piece of reportage on contemporary Russian social and cultural life; it was noteworthy for the detailed attention it paid to literature, drama and opera. Hailed at the time as "by far the best English book about Russia", this work of Edwards was also remarkable as the first to present Krylov and his Fables accurately to the English reader.

Next on our list comes a very singular trio, the Michell brothers. Of Irish extraction, and consequently of a highly independent disposition, these three were renowned for their wide experience of Russia and perfect knowledge of Russian. Thomas Michell, chief of the trio, was for many years British Consul at Petersburg; he was detested by the Tsar Alexander II for his political independence and critical attitude.

It is said that eventually, one day in 1874, when Alexander II happened to meet Michell by accident in the Winter Palace, he cried out in a passion: "Get rid of him! I won't have him here any longer!" So Michell was transferred, though he later returned to Russia as a private individual and lived at Odessa. He was succeeded as Consul by his brother John. Robert, the third brother, served long as chief Russian translator to the India Office, for whom he edited a learned account of the first Russian expedition to Khiva, under Peter I.

AND now to the historians—the men who gained renown for their scholarship in things Russian. The eldest was W. R. S. Ralston (1828-1889), who graduated from Trinity College, Cambridge, at the age of twenty-two and shortly afterwards went to work in the British Museum library, where he learnt Russian. Ralston edited and translated Krylov's Fables into English and published important works on Russian folklore and traditional music.

His successor in the British Museum was a still more remarkable man, Robert Nisbet Bain (1854-1909). Lacking any higher education, Bain began as a shorthand writer in a lawyer's office, but showed astonishing talent as a linguist.

He taught himself 20 European languages, including especially the Slavonic and Scandinavian tongues. Bain was thus able to study the original sources for Russian history, and made himself the first scientific English historian on certain Russian periods, notably the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century. His books are still models of careful scholarship, and he was a contributor to the famous collective work, the Cambridge Modern History.

Of less importance as a historian, but out-

standing as a Slavonic scholar, was William Richard Morfill (1834-1909). An Oxford graduate, Morfill in 1889 became that University's Reader in Russian and also took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Prague. He wrote and published authoritative Grammars of the Polish, Czech, Serb, Russian and Bulgarian languages; and, as his biography quaintly adds, "he also knew Welsh, Old Irish and Turkish". Morfill collected a fine Slavonic library, which he left to Queen's College, Oxford, where it still occupies an honoured place.

The last group we have to consider is that of the newspaper correspondents and publicists—the most important of all in respect of their influence on opinion. First and greatest of these was Donald Mackenzie Wallace (1841-1919). A capable, determined and highly-educated Scotsman—he studied at various British and continental universities—Wallace visited Russia in 1870 for a short stay. He remained six years, acquiring the knowledge which made his monumental two-volume work "Russia", first published in 1877, instantly famous.

Wallace's book set a new standard for foreign writers in the objective analysis of Russian

political, social and economic life. Especially in its later editions, it was notable for its informed and sympathetic presentation of the revolutionary movement. Through it Wallace became first a special correspondent and later Director of the Foreign Department, of *The Times*.

Remaining to the end of his life an active and attentive student of Russian affairs, Wallace may be said virtually to have founded a new school of Anglo-Russian experts.

Among them were the late Harold Williams who, like Wallace, became Director of the Foreign Department of *The Times*; Maurice Baring; Geoffrey Drage (secretary of the historic Royal Commission on Labour in 1892-1894); E. J. Dillon (who wrote under the Russian pseudonym E. B. Lanin); George Perris, noted for his sympathetic book on the 1905 revolution; and the still living Sir Bernard Pares.

In his pioneer book—"Russia and Reform", published in 1907—Pares was the first British writer to mention Lenin and his work, elaborating the point in chapters he later contributed to the Cambridge Modern History.



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S.C.R. ACTIVITIES

ONE of the most important events in the life of the S.C.R. has now occurred, with its removal to the new house at 14, Kensington Square, which took place at the end of September. The Society is now installed in its new home.

Though at the time of writing all the necessary adjustments have not been completed, it is already apparent that the move is going to make the Society's work more effective.

Education Section. Since the last issue of the JOURNAL, a number of interesting events has been organised by the Society. The Education Section held a Summer School at The Hayes, Swanwick, Derbyshire, from August 1st to 8th, on the theme of "Education for Reconstruction in the U.S.S.R." Lectures were given by Mr. Julius Silverman, M.P., Mr. F. Le Gros Clark, Mr. Joseph Macleod, Mrs. Beatrice King and Mr. D. N. Pritt, K.C., M.P. Discussion and question-and-answer meetings were combined with enjoyment of the scenery of the Peak District, including a visit to a coal mine. One of the most successful evenings was spent in a joint Brains Trust with the Methodist Fellowship, who were sharing the conference house. The school was happy to receive visits from Mme. Rodionova, Principal of the Soviet School in London, and Mme. Svirina.

The Education Section also arranged a Conference on Teaching Aids connected with the U.S.S.R., on October 11th at the University of London Institute of Education. The conference was opened by Mr. B. I. Karavaev, First Secretary of the Soviet Embassy, with Dr. G. B. Jeffery, Director of the Institute, presiding at the opening. The theme of the morning session was aids in the teaching of geography, and the discussion was opened by Mr. J. Fairgrieve, with Professor S. W. Wooldridge in the chair. Mr. Andrew Rothstein presided over the afternoon session, on aids in the teaching of history, and the discussion was opened by Mrs. M. E. Beggs-Humphreys. An exhibition of available aids—textbooks, maps, film-slides, lantern slides, charts and wall pictures—was on view.

Chess. The visit of the Soviet chess team, more fully reported elsewhere, was a landmark in the history of the Society, and the Chess Section are to be congratulated on an outstanding success. The initiative for the invitation to the Soviet team came from them, and they put in many hours of hard work in order to ensure the smooth running of the arrangements. It is to be hoped that the success of the visit means that it is the forerunner of many such exchanges.

The place which the Anglo-Soviet Chess Circle now holds is indicated by the choice of the

Society's house as the venue for the tie in the 1947 British Championship to be played off. In a match of six games, played over the last two week-ends in October, H. Golombek beat R. Broadbent, who had scored an equal number of points at Harrogate in August.

Library. While some of the public activity of the Society has had to be curtailed because of the necessary dislocation caused by moving to new premises, all the departments and sections have been busy in answering enquiries and maintaining their usual services. The Library, round which so much of the information work of the S.C.R. is centred, was closed for the period from September 15th to October 15th, but is now installed in greatly improved shelving which will be of great advantage to readers, who have now much improved facilities for reading in the library itself.

The Exhibition Department has been fully engaged in supplying material for lecturers, for the Royal Army Education Corps, schools and elsewhere, and there has already been an increased demand for visual aids as a result of the conference on October 11th mentioned above. New film strips are in preparation, and the exhibition on Soviet Education and Character-building has been widely seen in training colleges up and down Britain.

Information Service. The Society continues to receive many requests from the U.S.S.R. for information and assistance. Both the Theatre Section and the Writers' Group, in addition to their current work of preparation for their winter programmes, carry on a regular exchange of books and plays with their Soviet colleagues. Two short examples of the kind of help which the Society is able to give to writers in both countries are the obtaining of bibliographical details for a British editor of an early copy of "The Adventures of Baron Munchausen", printed in Oxford and now in a Leningrad library; and the ready response by S.C.R. members to an appeal for copies of Roget's Thesaurus, Fowler's "The King's English" and other reference books, from the Georgian Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries in Tbilisi.

Theatre Section. The Soviet Theatre Exhibition continues its successful tour. It opened in Wolverhampton in October.

The exhibition of the history of Shakespearean productions in Britain, prepared by the Theatre Section in conjunction with the Arts Council of Great Britain, has been shown in several towns in Britain, preparatory to its visit to Moscow for the 1948 celebrations of Shakespeare's birthday.

The Legal Section is still engaged on its important task of listing all available books on Soviet law, and has issued a bulletin for members.

The New Power in the Kazakh Village

by Sapurin

FOR many thousands of kilometres—from the banks of the Volga to the glaciers of Tien Shan—stretches the territory of Kazakhstan, second republic in size of the Soviet Union. Not so very long ago Kazakhstan was a wild suburb of the Russian Empire, the inhabitants of which lived on the meagre income derived from primitive livestock breeding. It seemed that nothing could change those lifeless steppes and mountain wilderness.

Travelling in this region the Russian geographer Savatayev wrote in 1916: "How wild and limitless are the deserts here; how impoverished the inhabitants. How difficult it is to live in the knowledge that the morrow will be no better than today, that the dead land will never blossom." Savatayev erred. In the twenty-nine years since the establishment of Soviet power in Russia, Kazakhstan has changed beyond recognition. The earth of this territory was found to hold huge mineral deposits and the land capable of yielding rich harvests of wheat, rice, cotton, sugar beets, sesame, hemp and tobacco.

The Soviet system was that miraculous force which gave life to the dead nature and made it yield untold wealth to the reborn people. Kazakhstan now has its ferrous and non-ferrous metallurgy and well-developed coal, chemical and machine-building industry. National culture rooted in its ancient traditions is flourishing.

The woman has become an active participant in the new life of the Kazakh people. Her position in the family and society has radically changed.

Unlike the women of other peoples of the Moslem East, the Kazakh woman never wore the veil. But she knew only too well all the other forms of humiliation and oppression. The Kazakh might have several wives, but not one of them was ever permitted to eat *besbarmak* (a native meat dish with dough) with her husband. Women who prepared this favourite national food only received the leavings of the man. The Kazakh women were all illiterate. They had no rights whatsoever. Their evidence was not even accepted at the native courts. The grim laws of the steppe provided for the free sale of women and girls against their will. With the property of her dead husband the wife went to the closest relative of the deceased.

The Kazakh woman knew nothing but hard work. She kept the house, herded the cattle, milked the mares and cooked the meals for the family.

The Soviet Government freed all the women of the former Russian Empire, including the womenfolk of Kazakhstan. Soviet power,

pointed out Lenin, the power of the toiling masses carried out a revolution in the legislation concerning women in the first months of its establishment. In the Soviet Republic no trace remains of any of the laws which kept the woman in a subordinate position.

The woman received equal political and economic rights with the man and for the first time in history began to take an active part in all spheres of national economy and culture. Thousands of Kazakh women are employed at the mills and factories. One sees the Kazakh woman engaged in scientific-research in the laboratory, playing the leading part at one of the theatres, or occupying a high position in one of the Government offices.

Under the Soviet regime the slave woman of yesterday has become a mighty force in the towns of Kazakhstan.

THE woman is also an important personality at the *aúl* (village), the collective-farm system gave birth to a new culture, a new life. The Kazakh *aúl* of today is not what it used to be in nomad times, when the *yurtas* (tents) were moved along from place to place together with the flocks of sheep and the goats. The *aúl* of today is a permanently inhabited centre, around which spread out fields of grain and industrial crops, criss-crossed by irrigation canals which give life to the formerly barren steppes. The Kazakh *aúls* are developing at a miraculous pace.

Only recently—in the first year of the war—work was started on the building up of the *aúl* Surat (Merket district, Dzhambul region). Today on the site of waste land rise 174 cottages, which line the straight streets. Each cottage has its orchard—a thing unknown in the past.

The village of Surat boasts a secondary school, a hospital, a kindergarten and a nursery with accommodation for 150 children. Every condition is provided to enable the woman to utilise to the full the rights granted her by the Constitutions of the U.S.S.R. and of Kazakhstan.

The children's institutions, where the growing generation is ensured an excellent upbringing, free the woman from many household worries and enable her to take an active part in public life. Half the deputies of the village Soviet are women. The young Kazakh woman Aitkul Mambetova, who distinguished herself in social work, was elected chairman of the agricultural *artel*. Under her guidance the collective farm reaped a rich harvest of sugar beet in 1946—52 tons per hectare.

The biography of Aitkul Mambetova is a vivid illustration of the great changes that have come about in the life of the woman of the Kazakh aul. Aitkul was born in 1920 in the family of a livestock breeder. The village school which she finished in 1935 taught her to consider the interests of the community. Working on the collective farm, she took an active part in the activities of the Red Cross organisation, arranging talks with the village people on subjects of sanitation. In 1941 Aitkul's husband—a rank and file collective farmer—was drafted into the Red Army. Aitkul also volunteered for front line service and with this aim in view took an army nurse's course organised by the Red Cross Society. However, her health did not permit her to join the army ranks and she stayed behind to work on the collective farm.

"I shall work for the two of us," she said, "and thus help our Red Army and my husband as well."

The front needed more and more reinforcements. The majority of the menfolk were called up and the women occupied all the leading positions on the farm—from the team leader and the farm manager to the link captain and the ordinary field worker. Aitkul Mambetova—master farmer and active public worker, was elected chairman of the collective farm. She had to carry out her responsibilities with three children on her hands, the youngest of whom was only ten months old.

THE war ended, the soldiers returned to the aul. Aitkul's husband—Veisemkul Mambetov—also came back, but she remained chairman of the collective farm, where she had won the respect of the village people.

Aitkul Mambetova is no exception. Her life is like that of thousands of other women of the Kazakh aul, who have been given the opportunity to make the most of themselves.

Soviet power and the collective-farm system have helped them to develop their talents and follow their inclinations.

The new skills which the Kazakh women have mastered reflect the radical changes in the aul and the technical re-equipment of agriculture in the republic. Thousands of the village women have become chauffeurs, tractor drivers, combine operators, agronomists, veterinary surgeons or irrigation specialists. Women doctors and teachers who are continuously increasing in numbers, are very popular at the auls. Thousands of Kazakh women are working in the village reading halls, at the laboratories and libraries.

The Kazakh aul is quite different from what it was. Economic life is based on new principles, on the teaching of Lenin and Stalin. With the development of the national economy develops the national culture.

SCIENCE AND THE SOVIET STATE

Verbatim report of the symposium held at Caxton Hall, London on November 12th, 1947, in honour of the 30th Anniversary of the U.S.S.R.

Chairman : SIR ROBERT WATSON-WATT. F.R.S.

Speakers : PROF. J. D. BERNAL, F.R.S.

PROF. V. GORDON CHILDE.

MR. ANDREW ROTHSTEIN.

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14 Kensington Square, W.8.

INTRODUCING FOUR NEW SOVIET WRITERS

By Alexei Surkov

IN my first letter from Moscow I would like to bring to the notice of British readers an event of much significance for the future of our literature.

Early last summer Stalin Prizes were awarded for books written in 1946. Since 1940, the annual adjudication of Stalin Prizes has become part of the living traditions of literature, a summing-up, as it were, of its development over the past year. Till this year, however, Stalin Prizes were, as a rule, awarded for books written by mature authors firmly occupying their established place in literature.

Among the 1946 Stalin Prize winners for prose are the books: "Fellow Travelers", by Vera Panova, "Men With a Clear Conscience" by Peter Vershigora, "In the Trenches of Stalin-grad", by Victor Nekrasov, "The Story of a Real Man", by Boris Polevoi. With these books, all four make their first appearance as authors.

The four writers differ in age and background. In the latter respect, however, they all have one common and significant feature—participation in the recent world war and in the deep traces this war left on their individualities. Moreover, all these books were born out of those tremendous wartime events of which their authors were eyewitnesses and participants.

All these books show an irresistible urge to make known what had so deeply shaken the authors in their experience of the stern and stark daily life of a great war. In each of these books, either directly or indirectly—in authors' digressions and reflections—are voiced aspects and incidents of the writer's personal war life.

This singular "confession" before mankind is presented in most striking form in the essentially autobiographical book by Peter Vershigora—"Men With a Clear Conscience".

And the very life story of Vershigora himself is characteristic of our people.

A young, non-Party intellectual of Soviet growth, an ordinary film director in the Kiev Film Studio, Peter Vershigora who, early in the war, joined the army as a reconnaissance scout, was one of a special air-borne group parachuted behind the enemy lines. Here he eventually succeeded in joining with the legendary

Ukrainian partisan Sidor Kovpak who, before the war, like Vershigora, was an ordinary Soviet citizen, a District administrative worker, occupying the post of Chairman of the City Soviet.

As Kovpak's partisan detachment grew, behind the enemy lines, into a formidable military formation, striking terror into the Germans, so did Vershigora grow as an individual and a military man, to become, in the second half of the war, the mainstay of General Sidor Kovpak—Major-General of the Soviet Army, Peter Vershigora, Hero of the Soviet Union.

This shrewd and keen-eyed man in whom the future writer was already beginning to stir in the romantic environment of partisan life, was very observant of his companions in partisan wanderings and battles, and with keen, fresh vision noted their character, the motives of their deeds, and their deeds themselves, fathoming the hidden and common mainsprings of human conduct. All this he noted, and remembered.

The reader of "Men With a Clear Conscience" is transported to the Spartan-like, simple and stern Soviet world of people deeply imbued with one common desire—to fight the foreign enslavers, preferring death standing upright, to life on their knees.

This new feature will bring to readers of THE ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL the first news and reviews of the new books which are proving popular in the Soviet Union. Soviet writers will discuss new and significant trends in Soviet writing, both in books and in periodical literature.

Alexei Surkov is a popular poet and critic. His first book of verse was published in 1930. He wrote the words of two very popular war songs—"Red Cavalry Song" and "Song of the Bold".

VERSHIGORA'S book is a chronicle.

It is a diary of the life of partisans behind the enemy lines. It has no harmonious balance of composition required by literary rules. Neither has it a carefully-thought out plot.

His heroes are not classified into primary and secondary. The plot moves by the force of the powerful dynamics of partisan war life itself. Shaped by this dynamic force, the narrative is living and unconstrained, filled with a kaleidoscope of swiftly changing events and a wealth of psychological collisions. It defines the place of the hero in these eventful developments, fusing private destinies and private behaviour of units into one integral image of the new Soviet man—"the man with a clear conscience".

The style and imagery of this book bear traces of Vershigora's inexperience. But the most critical reader will find that the artistic sense and

intuitive sensitivity make up for these shortcomings.

"Men With a Clear Conscience" lays before the reader the "innermost secrets" of the Soviet individual's personality. In the characters of "Grandpa" Sidor Kovpak, of the god-like Commissar of the unit, Rudnev, of the Chief of Staff Bazymy, of the commanders, scouts, demolition men and rank-and-file partisans, Vershigora brings out the fundamentally new qualities which Soviet life has developed in the ordinary citizen.

In the beginning of the story there is nothing exceptional about the characters. They are all ordinary, average people, with the virtues and shortcomings inherent in all average human beings. Communists, Young Communist League members and non-Party people are to be found in the motley throng of the partisan detachment. The qualities are developed in response to the strenuous demands made by the war.

Vershigora brings out the tremendous force that is the ordinary person who knows himself as master of his country's fate and an active participant in the history of mankind.

VICTOR NEKRASOV'S book "In the Trenches of Stalingrad" takes readers into that same environment of armed Soviet people defending their freedom and their state's right to existence.

This book has no broad historical generalisations. It has no epic panorama of the most stupendous battle of the war. The chief character is a sapper officer, Kerzhentsev, called up from the reserve. The story is in the first person as seen through the eyes of Kerzhentsev, being restricted to the actual events of which he, as battalion commander and the chief of an infantry regiment of engineers, was personal eyewitness. This limited scope of canvas, both in space and in time, permits, however, greater clarity and a convincing forcefulness in the portrayal of the rank-and-file in this history-making battle—junior officers and privates, infantrymen, sailors and sappers.

"In the Trenches of Stalingrad" is Victor Nekrasov's first literary venture. Before the war Nekrasov was a student in an Architecture institute and worked on stage-designs. The war made a sapper officer of him, led him through its rough roads to the heart of battles, and inflicted grave wounds on him. His book is deeply biographic, and had its author not revealed obvious literary talent it would never have been more than a seasoned soldier's tale of his war experiences.

With this book, however, Nekrasov shows himself to be not merely a raconteur but a young, vigorous artist, with the genuine writer's skill of seeing and selecting that which is most characteristic and significant, and of generalising everything seen and experienced as a real writer should.

While in his tale of events and of people Vershigora does not hesitate to digress into lyrical thoughts or in philosophising, Nekrasov is chiefly concerned with events and human behaviour under battle conditions, very rarely and very sparingly going off into lyrical digressions or commentaries on events. He avoids all rhetoric.

Nekrasov deliberately chooses this form of wording, leaving philosophising to his readers. He consciously sets out to give a full and clear description of the characteristics of trench-life and of the behaviour of the persons themselves. This will naturally lead the reader to form his own conclusions without any prompting by the author.

"In the Trenches of Stalingrad" is a book of great courageous truth about the hard life of the average officer and soldier in the trenches. This life is presented to the reader just as it is—unadorned. The author, deliberately, as it were, informs the reader of the fate of the hero at the most trying time, during the retreat from the eastern part of the Ukraine to Stalingrad.

Against the background of this terrible military calamity, he portrays men in drab army-coats showing their suffering, their soldierly endurance, their love of their soil. Withdrawing to the east, he shows them fighting desperately for each intermediate line and how, amid the ruins of Stalingrad where metal was torn, became molten, beneath a constant hail of bombs, shells and mortars, men lived in heart-chilling contact with death, and not only never lost their capacity for resistance, but even preserved their capacity to deliver the enemy a crushing counter-blow at the first opportunity. And it is because Nekrasov relates this epic simply and ordinarily, without any striving for effect, without over-emphasis, because of this his tale is so impressive, and conveys an understanding of the nature and specific qualities of the Soviet soldier and citizen.

REAL events and destinies go to make the plot of Boris Polevoi's book "The Story of a Real Man". Maresyev (who in Polevoi's story is called Meresyev), the pilot of a fighter plane, was shot down during an air battle. He baled out of his burning machine and made a parachute landing.

This was far behind the enemy lines, in the winter. By superhuman efforts of will he forced himself to keep pushing eastward, to the front line, to his own people. Exhausted with hunger, with hands and feet frostbitten, he at last crossed the front. In hospital both his frozen legs had to be amputated. This nightmare seemed tantamount to death to such a strong-willed, purposeful man as Maresyev, so vigorous, combative.

Supported, however, by those around him, he does not yield to despair. By desperate effort of will he forces himself to recover physically. And that same will to live, to be active and to fight, helped him to achieve the incredible. He stands up and with great persistence learns to use his mechanical legs as though they were alive. Moreover, he obtains permission to remain on the active list of the Soviet Air Force, and to this very day this Soviet officer continues to fly.

It is with this man as hero that Boris Polevoi, a front-line journalist with more than enough first-hand experience of war, wrote his book—his maiden effort in serious literature.

The pages of this book present readers with the picture of a Soviet young man, the pattern of many a man whose whole life was moulded and shaped to stand the test which which it was faced in the war.

Step by step the author follows his hero in his truly incredible march from behind the enemy lines back to the front. With boundless patience he spends days and nights in the army hospital, by the bedside of this wounded man, recording everything, the stormy attacks of despair tearing at the heart of him, and the days of crises, and the joyful days which followed the turning point, and the recovery of spiritual health. The main thread in this story is kept tense not so much by the sharpness of events as by the sharpness of psychological collisions, by the alternation of despair and hope. The author portrays a background of soldiers similarly crippled by war and—like his hero—standing at the very threshold of death. This environment fills his hero with vital energy and strengthens his will to overcome his misfortune.

Vera Panova's book "Fellow Travellers" likewise introduces readers to the blood-soaked battle lines in the immediate vicinity of the war. In a newly-formed Red-Cross train are assembled all kinds of people who have been uprooted by the war—army doctors and assistant surgeons, nurses and attendants, stokers and ambulance-aides.

In the form of a chronicle of one battle run made by the Red-Cross train, Vera Panova presents a picture of how a group of people of peaceful vocations, a group of chance fellow-travellers, whom fate assembled together under the roof of a hospital-train, turns into a small but determined detachment of soldiers fighting in the great war for liberation. Introduced to her heroes through one of these chance fellow-travellers in the first pages of the book, the reader finds it a painful wrench to part, on the last pages, from these people who have become his kith and kin, a family with which it seems he has lived his whole life.

I HAVE intentionally introduced my readers to the atmosphere which permeates these four books, as most likely none of the readers of this Letter have read these books. I have aimed to reveal the main point in each work in order to prompt their being translated into English and thereby add to the English reader's knowledge of the nature of the Soviet man, the character and pattern of his personality, and to introduce English readers to the great events in which the characters in these books were participants.

These four books lead to broad conclusions of great significance.

The first, and gratifying conclusion is that the soul-shaking events experienced by our people during the war, events which demanded the mobilisation not only of all economic resources but also of all moral resources of the nation, did not lead to any brutalising and coarsening of the human personality.

On the contrary, in the grave trials of war, Soviet people displayed a greatness of spirit and a heroism never before witnessed in our history.

The second conclusion is that in the new Soviet society where most of the people are united by a singleness of aim never before known

in history, an aim which predetermines unity of action; this heroism under the hardest trials becomes a heroism not of individuals but of the masses.

The third conclusion is that the tragedy of war did not impoverish our literature, did not fling it into the stifling little world of petty emotions and petty suffering of the artist who avoids grim reality. It did not plunge it into the quagmire of soul-enfeebling mysticism. On the contrary, the lofty traditions of citizenship and social service in which Russian literature of the past century has been so strong and glorious, during the war became a sharp weapon for Soviet writers in the fight against the enemy.

Both during the war and since, Soviet writers have continued their creative work right in the very thick of life.

This is borne out by the appearance of the books I have listed above and of a great many more works of prose and poetry written by young authors, men and women returned from the war.

The victory over the enemy filled our people with a fresh wave of confidence in their own forces and in the justness of their cause. Post-war reality is no bed of roses; but abounding in constructive labour, it has strengthened this confidence. This confidence inspires Soviet writers to create new works, as a nation's great deeds cannot give birth to the petty literature which places the small and stifling world of the egoist in the centre of the great world. I am supported by the appearance in Moscow and Leningrad literary magazines in the past year of a large number of gifted works by new authors—works of great significance in the problems touched upon.

In my next letter I hope to share with English friends my impressions of these works.

IN closing this letter I would like to address an appeal to English men of letters and translators to translate more new works of Soviet literature into English.

I am prompted to make this appeal by my sincere desire for a deeper and closer understanding between the simple people of other countries and ourselves.

Foreign guests and travellers visit us. They dash across our country at a galloping pace, seeing it through the spectacles of their prejudices and mistrust born of false propaganda. After which they write about us—a great deal of untruth which does not dispel but condenses the smoke-screen of distrust and prejudices against our country.

Today, when the war-mongers are deliberately slinging mud against our country and inciting hatred of our people, in order to distract public attention from their own military schemings, Soviet literature and Soviet writers can help all honest-minded people in Britain to learn the truth about the Soviet Union and its people, about its past and its present.

Perhaps, on reading our books and checking up their testimony with the results of the second world war, some of the neurasthenics will realise that even the entire global reserves of uranium will be inadequate to annihilate two hundred million people who are akin to the heroes in these books.

"THE DETAIL"

by Boris Lavrenev

THE Colonel was sitting on a stool, his large, beautiful hands lying on the unvarnished boards of the table. He was listening to the report from the Divisional Commissar, and mechanically beating a roll of drums on the table with his fingers.

The Colonel's hands attracted the eyes of both the Commissar and the young, sunburnt, cheerful artillery lieutenant, summoned to H.Q. from his artillery unit. They were fine—these strong, manly hands, with long muscular fingers. One felt that they knew how to grasp things, how to be gentle, almost with a childlike mildness, and yet, at the same time, in a fit of fury they would be capable of breaking and crushing anything.

The Colonel had arrived at the Divisional H.Q. an hour ago. During the previous night the signalman on duty received a radio message from the Army Staff which reported that the Division would be visited by the prominent artillery designer, Col. Lyubimov, to observe under battle conditions the performance of a new artillery device, which has just gone into production.

The Colonel arrived on the dot—punctually to the minute at the time specified in the message. The Commissar had not met the Colonel before—in fact, he had never even seen him, but hardly had the guest come out of his fast army jeep, when he gave the Commissar a pleasant surprise by delivering to him a message from an old friend in the Civil War days—now a director of a munition factory in the East.

This unexpected occurrence at once eased the usual awkwardness of the first moments of a meeting between strangers, even when they do happen to belong to the same profession.

COLONEL LYUBIMOV handed the Commissar the order of the Chief Artillery Administration explaining his mission, and said that he would like to start on his task as soon as possible.

"Well, that's excellent, comrade Colonel," said the Commissar, reaching for the file of papers brought to him for signature, "We shall do our utmost to help you. Comrade lieutenant over there will go with you at once to the Detachment H.Q. There you will meet the commander of the detachment and can feast your eyes on your little 'gadget' to your heart's content!"

The Colonel stood up smartly and straightened the belt over his tunic.

"By the way, comrade Commissar, I am also interested in your opinion", said he, "you have already had the opportunity of observing the 'gadget' in action. What do you think? Is it an important new weapon, at this stage of the war, or does it still require further finishing touches and alterations in construction?"

The Commissar also rose to his feet. In a jocular, bantering tone he said: "I think it's

not a bad little toy. To tell the truth, we like it, and it makes the Fritzes pretty wild. And that is precisely what we had to prove! But as to whether or not it should be in any way improved or altered, that's up to you to decide. You are an artilleryman and understand that sort of thing better than I. Come back to us for the night: I'll fix you up a nice little cosy place."

The Commissar held out his hand to the Colonel and the latter's powerful fingers gripped it in a vice-like handshake. Extracting his hand, the Commissar waved it about, saying: "Oho! Do you ever bend horse-shoes with your hands?"

"I am sorry", said the Colonel, embarrassed, "I worked in a cable factory in my youth and that sort of work does rather tend to develop the muscles of the fingers. . .

THE door closed behind the Colonel. The Commissar took out a fountain pen from his breast pocket and began looking through the papers.

He signed one, then another. When he got to the third one he hesitated. . . . The hand holding the pen was arrested in mid-air. The Commissar's eyebrows met in a frown and an expression of strained thought was reflected in his face. He pushed away the paper in front of him, rose from the table and looked out of the window. Beyond the window lay the dark-purple, damp land, steaming in the spring sun and sprinkled here and there with the green bristles of the first needle-shaped shoots of grass. The puddles glistened like splinters of blue glass on the road, badly battered by the heavy lorries.

From the expression of his face one might imagine he distrusted the reality of this prosaic landscape. Stubbornly, almost with irritation, he was trying to recapture something that was eluding his consciousness. Five minutes passed. Suddenly the Commissar brought his clenched fist down on the window-sill so abruptly that the glass shook mournfully.

The strained, distracted look disappeared from his eyes. He went back to the table, lifted the receiver of the field telephone from its green case, and, on hearing the voice of the operator, covered his mouth with his hand, as if not wishing to be overheard, and ordered:

"Comrade operator, put me through to Kononenko. But do it properly, without any of your growlings, or short-circuits or other noises!"

Holding the telephone receiver to his ear with his right shoulder, the Commissar managed to roll himself a cigarette, fit it into a holder and light it before his call was through.

"Kononenko, come and see me at once," said he, still covering his mouth with his hand. Then, without waiting for any reply, he put down the receiver.

He continued signing papers, his face again assuming his usual composed and slightly tired expression. Soon there was a knock on the door and, after the commissar's "come-in", a

thin man, with angular, hunched-up shoulders, came in and walked up to the table.

"You sent for me, Comrade Commissar."

The Commissar closed the file, pushed his chair back with a forceful movement, and paced up and down the room several times. Kononenko stood still, following him with his eyes. At last the Commissar stopped pacing up and down and took Kononenko by the arm.

"Sorry to have troubled you, but I have an important matter to discuss with you."

He drew Kononenko into a corner, where there was less light, and there, continuing to hold his arm, talked to him in a whisper for a long time. Kononenko listened, his head bent to one side and not a muscle moved on that thin face, with the two deep wrinkles on both sides of his mouth, which made his young face look old.

"So that's how it is. All clear to you?" asked the Commissar.

Kononenko nodded silently in reply. Then they both left the room. It was nearly time for dinner.

It was getting dark when Lyubimov returned from the detachment. The lamp on the Commissar's table, shaded with a sheet of paper on one side, shed a yellow light about it. It threw a warm, brown shadow on the sitter's forehead and eyes, so that it was impossible to discern his expression.

"Do sit down, Comrade Colonel," said the Commissar hospitably. "How was the visit?" Have a smoke"—and he offered the Colonel a simple Karelian birchwood cigarette case, full of yellow tobacco.

"Thanks, the visit was excellent. I saw the 'gadget' in action, not just on firing ground. You are right—the Fritzies are bothered by it! I think that, if a little more is done to improve its striking power, it will be first-class. No, thank you", and the Colonel refused the tobacco. "I prefer cigarettes. Besides, I don't know how to roll them."

He took out a box of cigarettes, opened it, selected a cigarette and, while he was lighting it, the Commissar again looked fixedly at his beautiful hands. Then he said thoughtfully: "I informed the major-general of your visit. He will be delighted to see you, but asked you to call on him tomorrow morning. He is rather tired today and, besides, the H.Q. C.O. is with him making an urgent report. You, too, must be tired. Have a good rest. You will be shown to your room in a moment. . . Comrade Kononenko!" called the Commissar in a louder voice. Kononenko entered the room and stood on the threshold.

COLONEL LYUBIMOV put the smoked cigarette into an ash tray on the Commissar's table. "It's not at all a bad idea to have some rest", said he with a yawn. "I've spent so much time in the wilds of administration that all this fresh air has gone to my head. Thanks for the hospitality. See you tomorrow."

"Good night", answered the Commissar, without lifting his eyes from the papers. But the Colonel had risen and had already made a step towards the door, the Commissar said nonchalantly, as if remembering something by the merest of chance:

"Oh, yes! Just one more thing, Comrade Colonel. . . You are, of course, a Party member?"

"Certainly."

"You'll have to drop in on the Secretary. Although you will only be with us a short time, still a rule's a rule. And all Party members must register with the Secretary. There's a war. on and precaution is a good thing, just in case. . . But, I'll tell you what! To spare you the trouble of going to him personally, let me have a look at your Party card—I'll take down all the particulars and give them to him tomorrow."

The Colonel unbuttoned his tunic, took out his Party card and put it in front of the Commissar. The latter wrote down the name, the patronymic, surname and Party record in a notebook and then idly looked through the card to the last page.

"Excellent, Comrade Colonel," he said, handing back the card. "It is a pleasure to come across a regular Party member. Your subscriptions all paid up, too, to the last month, We have some who often forget. . . ."

The Commissar took up his cigarette case from the table and slowly put it into his trouser pocket as he watched the Colonel carefully put away his Party card and do up his tunic again.

Suddenly, the Commissar's hand shot out of his pocket and a black muzzle of a pistol was poised on the level of the Colonel's chest. At the same moment the Commissar ordered in an abrupt, harsh voice:

"Hands up, you scoundrel! And don't move!"

The Colonel did not make a single movement, only his eyes darted towards the door, where Kononenko was standing. But there another little black ring of a pistol's bore stared at him. He shrugged his shoulders and without betraying the slightest sign of fear or astonishment, but going very pale, raised his large, manly, beautiful hands to the ceiling.

Kononenko opened the door. Two Red Army men, their rifles striking the floor, silently took up their places on either side of the prisoner. Kononenko unfastened and removed the Colonel's belt with the leather pistol-case.

"Cocksure, eh?" he drawled, half-mockingly, half-approvingly—"did not even take any extra weapons!"

The Commissar walked up to the prisoner, opening out a pen-knife. The prisoner gave a shudder and backed away.

"Don't be scared! We don't practise your customs!" said he, making a wry face—"I only want to free you from superfluous details. They don't suit you."

And he carefully removed the triangles from the sleeves and also the buttonholes of the prisoner's collar. The prisoner looked askance at the Commissar and the look in his eyes was by now that of a cornered rat. He licked his dry lips and said in a hoarse voice:

"It's all the same now. . . . But how did you know?"

The Commissar gave him a morose look. "Why burden your brain with excessive knowledge just before the end? All the same, it won't help you now. . . . Take him away!"

THE Red Army man led the prisoner out. The Commissar went back to the table and began rolling a cigarette.

continued on page 32

THE S.C.R.'s NEW HOUSE

An appeal to members and friends

FOR twenty-three years the S.C.R. has worked to bring Britain and the U.S.S.R. to a close mutual understanding through knowledge and experience of each other's life and culture.

We have organised lectures, recitals and exhibitions for the peoples of Great Britain and the Soviet Union. We have arranged meetings between technical experts, professional workers and artists for the interchange of information and ideas. We have published pamphlets and periodicals. We have in the past arranged specialist tours to the U.S.S.R., an activity which we hope to resume in the near future.

We have built up a library of general and specialist literature on the Soviet Union in English and Russian, which is unique in this country and will have full scope for expansion in the new premises.

We can claim to have made a significant contribution to the growth of friendship and understanding which reached a high point during the war in a close alliance for victory. And we believe that a true and lasting understanding between Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. can be greatly encouraged by bringing together the cultural forces of the two peoples.

The S.C.R. aims to help the two great Commonwealths to appreciate each other's problems and achievements and to dispel the misunderstandings which may arise from ignorance or from difference of language, cultural tradition and social structure. All men of goodwill support this aim, which is perhaps more urgent and important today than it has been for many years.

To do our work properly, to seize every opportunity that is offered, needs money. And it had for long been clear that it also called for better premises, which in their turn make the need for money more urgent.

As most of our readers know, we now have a new and beautiful house in Kensington Square—the former home of William Makepeace Thackeray—which gives us the necessary space for the most varied activities.

Will you give us the funds? To complete the purchase and equip the House as a great creative centre for Anglo-Soviet understanding WE NEED £25,000. If you think our work important, will you send a donation and persuade your friends to do likewise?

CHARLES TREVELYAN, *President.*

D. N. PRITT, *Chairman.*

Contributions will be gratefully received by Mr. G. M. Vevers, F.R.C.S., Hon. Treasurer. The Society is recognised as established for charitable purposes only and gifts made under a deed of covenant for six years or longer enable considerable tax to be saved. Cheques should be made payable to: "S.C.R. Expansion Fund".

Soviet Women and Children— Thirty Years of Progress

By BEATRICE KING

THERE is much that the Soviet Union may be justly proud of in its review of the thirty years of its existence. The country can show great achievements in industry and agriculture, in science and art and education.

In these spheres statistics make Soviet successes so vividly clear that no one can withhold the profoundest admiration. But there is much in Soviet achievement that cannot be measured arithmetically, as in the realm of child care or the reinstatement of woman as an individual and as a citizen of equal importance with the man.

There are statistics for the number of children's homes and clubs and schools. There are statistics for the number of women in this or that industry, and they are impressive enough. But no statistics can give the full measure of the gain to women as Soviet citizens; no statistics can measure the gift of joy and happiness and the gift of freedom for growth, laid before children by the Soviet Government.

One has to live in the Soviet Union to understand what respect for children means, a respect that leads to a conviction that only the best is good enough for the child and to a determination to obtain that best. During the difficult days following the revolution as during the grim and dark days of the war, the thought of the children, their own children and all the country's children, the children of today and those yet unborn, was often the inspiration for a supreme effort whether at the front or in the rear.

Let us make no mistake, however. The Russians are not sentimental about their children. They do not regard them as gods entitled to all the privileges and owing no obligations. On the contrary, they have a fund of common sense which guides their attitude to children as to all else.

The best possible environment must be provided for children so that they may develop fully and freely for an ordered civilised society where each citizen acknowledges his obligations to the community and discharges them willingly.

Nurseries and kindergartens are provided in ever increasing numbers both to help the mother and give the child the best possible conditions for growth. In the nurseries and kindergartens the children take the first steps to self-reliance, to discipline, to co-operative living. Where there are no nurseries a group of housewives will

organise some place or other fit for the proper growth and development of children.

A wide general education which includes learning a European language at the age of nine, physics and chemistry as well as mathematics, is provided for all the children until 14. There is no selection before this age, no differentiation into higher intelligence and lower intelligence categories. After 14 there comes specialised education for about two-thirds of the children, the shortest period for which is two years and the longest may be five years. All who go into factory or office or farm are trained. The remainder, some twelve million or more, continue general education and then go on to higher education, which is continually expanding its facilities.

A great network of leisure institutions, school clubs, youth clubs, young naturalists' stations, children's railways, children's fleets, children's theatres and cinemas, libraries, all in the hands of highly-trained people, provides varied opportunity for creative self-expression and for the purposeful use of leisure.

Every city, however small, has its central Pioneer House, while important cities have Pioneer Palaces. There are nearly one hundred theatres for children. Full statistics will be found in my Guide to Soviet Education: here are just a few which give some measure of the care for children.

Homes for thousands.

Homes for the many thousands of children orphaned by the war, where they find the security and affection of which they have been deprived by the war, and the same opportunities for leisure as the child living with its family are run both by the state and by the voluntary effort of the local population. Watchfulness and inspection is raising the standard of the indifferent homes to that of the best.

All this and much more the country does for its children. In return it expects them to grow up loyal and devoted citizens, with a right attitude to work—one that regards labour as a matter of honour and glory. It expects them to be courteous and considerate, particularly to their elders, and helpful, particularly to the young.

The women play a great role in the bringing up of children; in the home as mothers or grandmothers, in the school as teachers—women are in the majority here—and through the various women's committees in the factories, the collective farms or in the block of flats. Whatever else the Soviet woman may do, whatever high responsibilities she may discharge, the responsibility for children, her own and the children of the nation as a whole, she accepts not only as an inescapable duty in her life, but

as a highly desirable duty. All those doors wide open to the Soviet woman, the doors into the world of politics, administration, science and art, industry and agriculture also, quite naturally lead back to the home. For her the choice is not a career or a home and family, but *what* career and the home and family.

Of course, life is not easy for her. The nursery and kindergarten provision, the school meals, the youth clubs, the eleven weeks pregnancy leave with full pay and the free provision of a layette and additional food still leave many problems for the worker mother. Possibly the worst today is overcrowding. The laundry service is far from adequate and washerwomen not always available or reliable. Shopping and cooking have to be done. Shops are open late as well as on Sundays, which helps considerably, and a relative living at home may help with the cooking.

But the Russian woman is not afraid of work, nor does she seek an easy life at the expense of others. So she accepts willingly and happily wifehood and motherhood, trying so to arrange life that every member of the family takes their share of duties. She takes advantage of all the open doors to fulfil herself as an individual and to make her contribution to the restoration and development of her country.

She not only receives equal pay for her work but she receives equal opportunities for education and training. While separate education for the sexes prevails, in the ten year schools, girls are taught by men as well as by women. They have the same curriculum and the same syllabus, exactly the same chances of a place in a medical school, or law school or any other school, as male students. They have the same chances for the higher posts, and a woman is not expected to be twice as good as the man to get the same job.

Women are encouraged as men are, to continue their education through evening course or correspondence course, through discussion classes and by every means possible, so as to fit themselves for higher posts whether it is in the factory or farm, in the co-operative store or the office of a government department.

Cooperation of sexes.

There is absent from Soviet life that undercurrent of hostility between men and women in the economic world, noticeable in other countries. Here men and women do not compete for the one job: there are far more jobs than there are qualified people to fill them. There is a great and inspiring feeling of comradeship, sane and healthy, between men and women on the staff of any establishment.

Treated thus, the women give of their best to the community. Much has been written of the part Soviet women played in the war, how they ran factories and farms, how they manned cargo ships and ran trains with munitions right up to the front line, how they flew bombers and fighters, how they played their part as partisans. As in Britain, the war could not have been won without the women.

Now Soviet women are playing an equally important part in winning the peace, in the fulfilment of the Fourth Five Year Plan. No women were dismissed from jobs or posts on cessation of hostilities, though many returned home voluntarily for a rest and to re-establish the home

life which the war had disintegrated. Whether they were still at their job or at home, thousands upon thousands of them volunteered for labour in rebuilding what the war had destroyed—factories and schools, mines and theatres. In the process they became skilled bricklayers, cement mixers and carpenters.

In every sphere of rebuilding, women are playing a part. They form 30 per cent. of the country's architects, and in many teams of architects the women outnumber the men. Nadezhda Bikova is responsible for the designs of a number of the new stations on the Moscow underground.

In science there is a younger generation of women producing first-rate work; some have made outstanding contributions to medicine and agriculture and others to history. Women are to be found in leading positions in the universities. One, Colonel-engineer Bagretsova, holds the Chair of Chemistry in the Kuybishev Military Academy in Moscow; others lead geological expeditions to Kamchatka.

In politics we find 277 women deputies to the Supreme Soviet out of about 1,000 members, and a far greater proportion of women deputies in union and autonomous republics. There are women ministers and deputy ministers; there are women like Popova who are leaders of the trade union movement.

We do not find women holding leading posts in the diplomatic world or in the ministry for foreign affairs. We have not heard of great women composers or painters in the Soviet Union, though probably the greatest sculptor is a woman, Vera Mukhina. Does that prove, as it is occasionally stated, that in fact women have not equality of opportunity with men? May it not equally be because women are not attracted to the diplomatic service? May it not be that it will take time for women themselves to establish a tradition in this service as in the ministry for foreign affairs or in other spheres? Nobody prevents a woman composing or painting. Indeed, in recent exhibitions women have had a good share of the wall space.

Soviet women no longer have to *prove* their right to equality. There is no need for insistence that a woman shall be given a position because for the sake of equality there must be a woman, or because there are special women's interests that can only be guarded by women.

In politics, in production, in the social services, though the needs may be different, the interests are basically the same for men and women. Where a community feels a woman would be the better representative they elect a woman. The difference in interests where it exists is found at a much lower level than in the sphere of diplomacy or foreign affairs. It is found in the practical realm of the care of children and old people, of the management and administration concerned closely and immediately with the lives of the people.

Whatever the explanation, the life of the Soviet woman is so full, her perspectives so encouraging, the regard in which she is held is so high that one finds she is not greatly concerned with the arithmetic of her position, or with the arithmetic of equality, whether there are enough women numerically in this or that position. For her, equality means equality of opportunity to develop herself to the full, to give of her best to the community, to work side by side with the man in the great tasks which face her country.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Russian Religious Mind. By George P. Fedotov. Howard University Press (London: Geoffrey Cumberland.) 426 pages. 32s. 6d.

THIS is a study of the outlook of Russian Christianity in the Kievan period, broadly speaking, that is to say, of the 11th and 12th centuries. In using the term "mind" the author is conscious of its inadequacy in view of the fact that one of the specific features of Russian Christianity is its non-intellectual approach.

This is a work for specialists. There is much however, in it of general interest, and particularly does it help to answer the questions so often asked as to why the Russian Orthodox Church of to-day has been so little influenced by the surrounding Marxism, and why the reforming movement in the Orthodox Church collapsed in the twenty years after the Revolution.

The pagan and animist background and its survival in the church is clearly shown. This is a common feature in countries converted to Christianity by order of their rulers, but is particularly striking in Russia. Sacred wells became Christian holy places. Sacred birches were associated with Friday. Forms of phallic cult survived.

The peculiar temptation of Eastern Christianity has always been to monophysitism, the view that Jesus was not really a man but a God in human form. This became acute in a Russia in which the Bible had small place—there is no extant copy of a complete Russian Bible earlier than 1500. In the period reviewed, there is no emphasis at all on the earthly life of Jesus, his teaching, the Kingdom of God, or ethics. "The Gospels", says the writer, "became a book of mysteries of Christ; a source of theological speculation." There was no "heaven on earth" except in the church.

Monasticism was dominant, and to this day only the monks become bishops. Unlike the West, where monasteries were never more than a part of the Christian system, here they almost became the system itself. The penitential discipline of the monasteries, their fast regulations, and their liturgical prayers, were imposed on the laity.

The Orthodox Service of today, so lengthy by western standards, is so because it is the monastic service which had to take up a large part of the monastic day since prayer was the particular work of the monk. Salvation itself was regarded as a monastic way, and hell was preached not only as a resort of the bad, but of the average person who was not a monk. Apart from the monks, only the rulers could easily be saved. In the words of Cyril of Turov:

"A good and right way is Christ for the world-rulers and all the potentates. Spreading their alms and goodwill before Christ, they enter easily into the Kingdom of Heaven; those breaking branches from the trees are common people and sinners, who, easing their way with contrition of heart and molteness of soul, with fast and prayer, come to God."

World rulers form one category, common people and sinners another.

It was the same Cyril who said: "Jesus Christ, who gratuitously saves the monastic order, Himself prays for us saying, 'Holy Father, I pray not for the world but only for them'."

Conversion, he said began with "sadness of mind" and "memory of death". Eastern, non-Christian sources, are here evident, and it is not without great significance that the legend of Buddha was powerful in the Kievan period, and, as the life of Saint Barlaam and Joasaph, was attributed to St. John of Damascus. Both Western Christianity and early Greek Christianity had the idea of the Kingdom of God and the redemption of Society. To the Kievan Russians it was not the world-order (Kosmos) that was to be changed and redeemed but the physical earth (ge).

"Afterwards, the earth will be new and flat as it was in the beginning, and whiter than snow; it will be changed by the order of God, and will be like gold, there will grow upon it various grasses and flowers, never fading, because spiritual; and trees will come forth, not similar to those visible now; their height, beauty and splendour the lips of men are unable to express, because they are spiritual."

When redeemed, the earth would not be material. There is indeed a deep distrust of the material in all the writings of the period which finds its peculiar expression in certain documents relating to canon law which show a marked aversion to the body and all its functions. So a particular penance is prescribed if a man vomits after communion. But this is slight beside the laws relating to sexual behaviour, where a whole series of taboos are completely Manichean. Bachelors were hardly admitted to Communion on the assumption that they were bound to be having irregular sexual relations.

There is another side to the picture. More than two hundred sermons of John Chrysostom were in circulation with their stress on human love and social justice. Even Cyril of Turov had something to say of the Athanasian doctrine of incarnation. The penitential document "The Preface to Repentance" has a considerable stress on social justice. The whole of Russian religion was social. The impact of Chrysostom on one side gave it some bias to realist analysis and justice. All agreed that God was immanent in nature and history, but the major trend was against Chrysostom and in favour of an artificial allegorical interpretation of events.

Behind all this the vokhvi, the heathen magicians, were strong. When one of them appeared in Novgorod at the time of Prince Gleb and attacked the Christians, although the Prince supported the Bishop, all the people followed the vokhv.

There are certain points in this book which are disputable. It deals with a contentious field and this is inevitable. But it is a work of considerable value for all students of Russian religious history.

STANLEY EVANS.

POST-WAR RUSSIA

The Spirit of Post-War Russia. Soviet Ideology 1917-1946. By Rudolf Schlesinger. (Dennis Dobson. 8s. 6d.)

DR. SCHLESINGER has written one of the most important books on the Soviet Union which has appeared in recent years. His book on "Russia and Her Western Neighbours", which he wrote with Professor Keeton, and his recent "Soviet Legal Theory", already indicated an exact knowledge and a spirit of scientific objectivity which are rare qualities in books on Soviet questions. They help to make this book an invaluable introduction to the study of Soviet society and politics.

Its title is misleading. It is not a psychological or descriptive study of post-war Russia, nor does it, as the sub-title suggests, concern itself mainly with ideology or theory. On the contrary it is a study of Soviet development covering economics, law, the constitution, nationalism, religion and history, to show the objective factors concerned with the changes that have taken place since 1917.

Much light is thrown on just those features of Russian life and policy which are most easily misunderstood in this country. Dr. Schlesinger has also tried to show to what extent these developments are consistent with Marxism and the theory of the Soviet State.

The result is not an easy book. The careful and sometimes rather subtle argument requires the closest attention. But it is a book which will repay study and which compels critical thought. It is the obvious antidote to the many volumes of unscrupulous or unconsciously tendentious anti-Soviet propaganda now pouring from the publishers. The questions raised in these attacks all find their answers either directly or indirectly in this book.

Dr. Schlesinger emphasises throughout that the main consideration of Soviet policy has been the preservation of the Socialist revolution, not only in view of the internal difficulties and problems incidental to the building of socialism, but more especially in view of the inevitability of war and the external threat to Soviet security.

He holds that though the cost has been high, "In view of recent events one can hardly deny the full justification of every sacrifice that enabled the U.S.S.R. by industrialisation and

agricultural collectivization to be prepared for the ordeal." He concludes that since the main reason for this situation was the general hostility to a socialist society among capitalist countries the individuals responsible for those very aspects of Soviet policy of which the West is most critical are not to be found in Moscow but in Berlin and London.

The most valuable chapters in the book for many people will be those dealing with "Classes in the New Society" and "The New Outlook in Private Life". Dr. Schlesinger finds no evidence at all for the emergence of a new governing class or a ruling managerial order.

"In the U.S.S.R. there are virtually no unearned incomes. In consequence the association of high income with parasitism, as current in the mentality of the 'class conscious' worker in capitalist countries, is lacking. Accordingly the Soviet state may be even bolder than others in using higher incomes as an incentive."

Highly qualified specialists earn no more than twice the income of a highly skilled worker—"it would probably be possible to count the people who regularly earned more than 4,000 roubles a month on your fingers. Stakhanovists, who are paid by output, may well get much more than a highly skilled specialist, but, of course, anyone may equip himself to earn this amount. Answering the question as to whether differentiated incomes are likely to create new class divisions Dr. Schlesinger points out that :

- (1) There is nothing for saving to be invested but State loans, which are regularly repaid and anyhow bear no interest in many cases.
- (2) "Neither a new capitalist class nor even a ruling class can grow up as long as the chances for the gifted boy or girl to rise from below are not curtailed."

As to the managers taking control, this is Dr. Schlesinger's comment : "I can hardly find rational sense in it unless it could be shown (a) that managers in the U.S.S.R. form a compact social group administering the enterprises put under their control virtually without interference by other people ; that is to say, that they are able either to nominate the leaders of the C.P., or to restrict the latter's influence on management ; (b) that this managerial class forms a stable social entity in the sense that a manager's son, as a rule becomes a manager himself, and that new comers from other social strata are as exceptional as the famous ex-newsboy millionaire of the U.S.A."

In the valuable sections on "The Constitution in Practice" and "The Function of Soviet Law" we have the advantage of the author's wide knowledge of the principles of civil law and constitutional theory. This is one of the best discussions of Soviet politics that I know and should be read with Professor Carr's chapter on Soviet Democracy in "The Soviet Impact." It is in his discussion of constitutional rights that Dr. Schlesinger says unambiguously : "There is for Marxism, no value above the free development of human personality."

There is a particularly interesting discussion on the relation of Socialist internationalism to Soviet political development, and a careful analysis of the growth of Marxist theory on this question as new situations have required it. This section on "Socialism and Patriotism" is not only of importance theoretically but provides

a good background for the understanding of Soviet Foreign policy.

Dr. Schlesinger has much that is stimulating to say on Marxist theory. In answering the question: Is Soviet theory and practice really Marxist to-day? he points out very truly that "some of the divergences supposed, by most observers, to exist between Stalinist and original Marxist ideology are based upon misunderstandings of the Marxist theory current in the Western Labour movement."

He discovers evidence, however, of determinism and crudely mechanistic ideas as to the entirely derivative character of the institutional and ideological superstructure, the existence of which among any influential circles is debatable. Nor is his division of Marxism into a materialist side which overstates objective limitations to action, and an idealist side which emphasises inevitable change and transformation, quite convincing. But it is a pleasure even to disagree with Dr. Schlesinger because of the essential reasonableness and fairness of his approach.

It would be impossible indeed in a book which honestly faces up to so many of the real difficulties in Soviet understanding to find no errors of interpretation or mistaken judgments. They detract little from this invaluable book—in fact, they stimulate the kind of discussion and revaluation that is above all things necessary in the present condition of extreme tension in Anglo-Soviet relations.

JOHN LEWIS.

The Great Cossack. By Cecil Field.
(Herbert Jenkins, Ltd. 7s. 6d.)

DESPITE an evident interest in the subject and a brave attempt to bring Sten'ka Razin to life, Mr. Cecil Field's "The Great Cossack" sacrifices too much of the historically significant for the obviously picturesque.

Mr. Field's research—if his bibliographia of fourteen books is any indication—is extremely limited. Except for a book published as recently as 1940, there is nothing more contemporary than 1931. Nor is there anything to show that the author has ventured into the rich field of Soviet literature concerned with the Sten'ka Razin rebellion. Much of the history belongs to the "primer" versions, and Mr. Field has a fondness for description of externals, which tends to distract from the narrative rather than supplement it.

The Sten'ka Razin of Mr. Field's portrayal remains a nebulous, violent, colourful personality—the epitome of the popular song, rather than a force which for a brief half decade, directed the revolutionary energies of the Don Cossacks and peasantry against the impositions of serfdom. There is little to show why when Razin and his men sailed up the Volga, the "streltsi" (Tsar's soldiers) and the peasantry joined him, or why, when the cossacks besieged Astrakhan and Tsaritsin, the people opened the gates to the "Ataman of the Poor". "It is no rare thing", says Struys ("The Voyages and Travels of John Struys", London, 1684) "to see the Rabble

assemble together in heaps, and before the doors of the magistrates, to cry out with bitter, infamous railings: 'Now, now the times begin to alter, it will be our turn next to Lord it, you villains come out and show yourselves to the world . . . '".

Perhaps if Mr. Field had told us why this was "no rare thing", and had provided something of an economic guide to the labyrinth of conflicting personalities, aims, and conditions of this period of Russian history, the historical significance of the Great Cossack would have stood out in bolder and clearer relief. As it is, we can hope this monogram of 125 pages is but the prelude of a more serious and richer study which Mr. Field's patience and interest in the subject could well provide.

DAVID TORRELL.

Catherine the Great and the Expansion of Russia. By Gladys Scott Thomson.
(English University Press. 5s.)

THIS book, the only volume planned so far in the series "Teach Yourself History", which deals with the political history of pre-revolutionary Russia, has been criticised on the ground that the author does not make use of Russian sources and makes an eclectic choice of the spelling of proper names.

I agree that it is rather shameful that there are so few English historians who know Russian, but it would be a pity for all study of Russian history to cease until this gap in the equipment of Mr. Rowse's team is made good. It is strange, however, that Miss Thomson does not mention either the translations of Klyuchevsky or of Pokrovsky that are easily obtainable.

Klyuchevsky is particularly enlightening on this period when serfdom was more firmly nailed down on the Russian people, and the gentry lived intellectually as well as physically on the labour of others. Pokrovsky is misleading in that he exaggerates the role of merchant capital and insists that it gave rise to new state forms, but he nevertheless gives valuable detail on the economic history of Russia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The main criticism of the book, despite the fact that it is very readable, is that it does not fulfil the aim of the series which is, according to the general introduction, to induce the general public to learn from history and in particular to increase its understanding of present politics by the study of past development. Miss Thomson is given a difficult task in that she has, as Mr. Rowse explains, "by way of a biography of a great man to open up a significant historical theme" which involves her in the view expressed on the cover of the book that Catherine the Great was "the driving force of the expansion behind which lay eight hundred years of history". But was she really the driving force? Was she much more than the tool of the Russian nobility to whom one-and-a-half millions of state peasants were transferred during the reign?

In 1762 Catherine's husband Peter III had finally released all members of the nobility from the obligation to serve the state; henceforth

they held their land unconditionally while the burdens of serfdom grew heavier and the institution spread into new provinces of Russia. Catherine could make a friend of Diderot; she could correspond with Voltaire; she could even refuse to torture state prisoners, but she could do nothing against the interests of the gentry. Sometimes Miss Thomson seems to agree that Catherine was powerless in certain fields. After describing the conditions of workers and peasants which caused the rebellion of Pugachev, she says that Catherine was not averse to proposing reforms but could not carry them through. Among the factors that prevented her from doing so was "her own dependence on the prejudices of those who helped her to attain the throne and were now keeping her there."

The position of the gentry seems to me to be the key to the period in foreign policy and cultural development as well as being the reason for the failure to combat serfdom. The gentry were willing for the Tsarina to assume the role of champion of the Orthodox in Poland and Turkey if it meant more land for them; the role did not prevent Catherine from confiscating the lands of the Church in Russia, a move from which they also benefited. The re-conquest of the former Russian lands of Eastern Poland was a legitimate Russian ambition, but it was not to the permanent interests of the Russian peoples to allow the partition of Poland to the aggrandisement of the German powers. Catherine and her backers were at first too occupied in Turkey and with Pugachev to prevent it, and later too greedy for land to desist. The author describes the course of foreign policy clearly and without unnecessary detail, though there seems no good reason for separating the chapters dealing with it, and the general public would gain more if there were a series of maps in the text rather than one map on the end papers showing Russian expansion through the reign.

Despite some encouragement to Russian institutions, including the founding of a girls' school by Catherine, the culture of the upper classes remained predominantly French, as hers was. The court aped Versailles and the nobility admired and followed their French counterparts. Catherine could draw up her instructions to the Assembly, in which she expressed sentiments of enlightenment in the style of Montesquien and Voltaire and at the same time hand over whole villages to the nobility, just as they could weep over a French novel and then beat their peasants to within an inch of their lives. This deep conflict between theory and practice accounts for the frustration and melancholy of every sensitive Russian intellectual of the nineteenth century.

What is really required for the understanding of this period of Russian history is a study of the composition of the class I have briefly called the gentry, of what divisions there were in it of its relationship to the bureaucracy and the great merchants. It might be brought out more clearly by the history of some individual Russian family such as Miss Scott Thomson has given us in her study of the Bedfords. The reader would then see in detail how such a typical family built up its fortunes, how it brought up the children, what they read, and what were their daily relationships with the peasants of Russia by whom, together with the workers of the towns, the New Russia was to be built.

JOAN BROWNE.

Fyodor Dostoevski, by J. A. T. Lloyd. 207 pages, 12s. 6d. (Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1946.)

Dostoevski, by John Cowper Powys. 208 pages, 7s. 6d. (John Lane the Bodley Head, 1946.)

LAST year marked the centenary of the publication of Dostoevski's *Poor Folk*—the book which in a moment placed its author among the great; and it was but natural that both in the U.S.S.R. and in this country special critical and biographical work should be loosed upon a world which had already had plenty to read on this subject.

Broadly speaking, both the two books before us and the work done in Russia had somewhat the same general aims—to assess and discuss in the light of the contemporary political and social situation the permanent significance of Dostoevski. Yet how different is the impression made by the Soviet and the British critics, while heartily agreeing as to the fact that Dostoevski was a great novelist. And the most obvious criticism to be made on both the British books is that their authors seem precluded by the linguistic barrier from that knowledge of the work of their Soviet colleagues which might have given to their work that sense of proportion and perspective of which our literary criticism of Russian literature stands so much in need.

What, then, it may be asked, is the reason for the production of these two books? It may perhaps justly be answered that Mr. Lloyd seeks to present new biographical material (such as the translated work of the novelist's daughter), and that Mr. Powys—who has a mind at once deep and vigorous—wishes to show as a legitimate form of literary criticism how profoundly real has been Dostoevski's influence on the shaping of himself. For, while Mr. Lloyd gives us a biography, Mr. Powys writes a purely subjective series of essays on the impact of Dostoevski's mind on his own. The books may, therefore, be regarded as in some sort complementary.

Mr. Lloyd's book on Dostoevski, *A Great Russian Realist*, which attempted a critical estimate, is to a large extent served up again in the present biographical work, despite the author's assurance in a prefatory note. The "immense amount of accumulated material" referred to in the same note is in fact little more than such biographical work as has become available in English or French translations in the interval between the two books. Neither the original German of Dostoevski's daughter (her work on her father appeared at Zurich in 1920), nor the new *Letters of the Dostoevskis* published at Moscow in 1939, nor the biographical studies of such men as Grossman and Yemilov of late years in Russia, nor the more ephemeral journalistic articles which show the present Soviet attitude, have been made use of; and the "Bibliography" at the end of the book clearly indicates the limitations of its sources.

After a sketch of the "background", Mr. Lloyd traces Dostoevski's personal and literary career in a series of chapters which blend fact with literary criticism and illustrate fairly copiously from the novels. Then follows a

chronological table, a list of Dostoevski's works and the bibliography already referred to. The style is that which may be termed "literary journalism". On the whole the book is well written, but shows a tendency here and there to *cliches*; and there are irritating tricks of diction such as the regular use of the word "Anglo-Saxon" for "British" or "English". Remembering Mr. Lloyd's book on Turgenev of the previous year, one is tempted to say that his pen is too facile. Little that is new and important is brought to light in this book, and some of the biographical facts are slightly inaccurate, such as the treatment of Dostoevski's visit to London. Nevertheless, within its obvious limitations, Mr. Lloyd's book does good service to the general reader of some education ignorant of Russian. It is generally agreeably and stimulatingly presented, and covers its ground well in so confined a space.

Of Mr. Powys's little book the last sentence of its dust-cover advertisement give truly the characteristic virtue. "Mr. Powys is an enthusiast, and, his instinctive *rapport* with what he calls the 'real reality' of things, people, books and thoughts is rare and stimulating. And his place in literature is secure."

His is a series of literary essays, colloquial yet of copious vocabulary, interspersed with what seem like deliberately-to-be-overheard soliloquies. To Mr. Powys Dostoevski is the greatest novelist the world has produced, and he aims to show the reader both why he feels this to be true, and the effects on his own mental and spiritual growth of his constant reading (only in the late Miss Constance Garnett's admirable renderings of course) of especially the four great novels, *Crime and Punishment*, *The Idiot*, *The Possessed (Devils)* and *The Brothers Karamazov*. The titles of the essays are always challenging, and show the professional man's skill in jolting the reader's mind into expectant attention. Such titles are, for instance, "Why Dostoevski is the greatest of all novelists", "Black Natural Magic", "Is our Reality in our Work or in Ourselves", "Art, Women and Torture", "The Worst of God", "Dostoevski and the present Crisis".

Mr. Powys realises the significance of Dostoevski in the new psychology of the Unconscious which he seemed to anticipate without its terminology, and many other matters of real importance are teasingly and stimulatingly touched upon. There is never a dull moment, nor is there much to suggest the discipline of letters or the value of the accurate use of language. Terms like "real reality" and "elemental empathy" may "stumble" the philosopher, and there are strange mixtures of metaphor which may seem sometimes to sacrifice clarity to an inner consciousness of meaning which escapes the reader. His digressions on his ideas of the origin of Romantic Christian love and on the true nature of woman will either delight the right sort of reader, or seem more than out of place in so small a volume.

This is how Mr. Powys begins his chapter headed "Dostoevski and Love":—"Let us therefore 'praise famous men' with a little more discrimination than has been usually applied by my roguish masters the confraternity of academic pimps to that wanton baggage, the Life-Spirit, and openly confess that the melodramatic vein

of popular horror in Dostoevski belongs to the same supreme genre in literature—though, of course of a less universal brand—as the poetry in Homer, the tragedy in Shakespeare, the human comedy in Cervantes, and the planetary humour in Rabelais."

But this is fundamentally a virile and alive book, and like Dostoevski himself and all the good work written about him, cannot fail to set every one of its readers thinking, feeling and arguing hard.

Both Mr. Lloyd and Mr. Powys tacitly seem to take it for granted that it is natural and proper to write about a great Russian author without having read either his works or those of critics in his native country in the original language. Until we can produce a generation of critics who will have an educated public to address with something of the same assumptions of linguistic and cultural knowledge that may be postulated when dealing with French literary work, we cannot expect a true appreciation of Russian authors in this country to seem a worth-while enterprise. Both authors ignore, for the same reason of linguistic and cultural isolation, no doubt, the whole question of the Soviet attitude to Dostoevski. The recent tendency to contrast him with Maxim Gorky is instructive; and Mr. Powys might have found it interesting to examine why his own favourite novel *The Devils* should have been used during the late war as an aid to making the full horrors of Nazi ideology vivid to the Soviet peoples.

C. L. WRENN.

Books Received

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF SOVIET RUSSIA: Volume One, 1929-1936. By Max Beloff. (Oxford University Press, N.Y. 15s.)

MASTERS OF RUSSIAN MUSIC. By M. D. Calvocoressi and Gerald Abrahams. (Tudor Publishing Co., New York. £1 1s.)

THE REAL SOVIET RUSSIA. By D. Dallin. (Hollis & Carter, Ltd. 18s.)

MEDIEVAL RUSSIAN LAWS. By George Vernadsky, translated by Austin P. Evans. (Columbia University Press, New York. 11s. 6d.)

SOVIET LAND: The Country, its People and their Work. By G. D. B. Gray. (A. & C. Black, Ltd. 12s. 6d.)

TALES OF BIELKIN. By A. Pushkin. Translated by E. Schimanskaya and M. E. Gow. (Lindsay Drummond, Ltd. 5s.)

The Folio Society has just published a volume of "Tales by Tolstoy, containing: "The Raid", "Two Hussars", "Three Deaths", "Polikushka", "Two Old Men", "The Death of Ivan Ilyitch", in Louise and Aylmer Maude's and Constance Garnett's translations. This is a particularly attractive edition, well illustrated by Elizabeth MacFadyen.

The inclusion of books in the above list does not preclude detailed review in future issues of the ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL.

CHESS INTERNATIONAL IN LONDON

By Professor L. S. Penrose

President S.C.R. Chess Section (Anglo-Soviet Chess Circle)

THE Chess Section of the S.C.R., in association with the British Chess Federation, had the good fortune recently to be hosts to a very distinguished team of Soviet chess masters, who had been invited to play in London against a British team. This was the first match the Russian masters had ever played in England. British and Soviet teams had played against each other on one previous occasion—the radio match of June, 1945, which was also organised by the Chess Section of the S.C.R.

The Soviet party was led by Mr. D. M. Urantsov (Vice-President of the All-Union Committee on Sport), and consisted of the ten members of the chess team, three reserves, Mr. Zubarev, the Soviet member of the referees' committee, and Mr. Sotov, the interpreter. The party reached London on September 19th, after a troublesome journey across Europe. They had reached Berlin by Soviet plane, but were unable to secure places in a British plane from Berlin to London and had to travel by train and boat without adequate sleeping accommodation. The entertainment programme previously prepared had to be modified in consequence of the team's delayed arrival, but several members of the party attended a luncheon at the House of Commons on September 19th, arranged by Mr. Julius Silverman, M.P., a member of our Council; they were welcomed by Mr. Lewis Silkin, M.P., Minister of Town and Country Planning. A number of the visitors also attended a reception to meet members of the British team, organised by the British Council on the same evening.

The official opening of the match took place on Saturday, September 20th, at Holborn Town Hall, which had been made available for the match by the

kindness of the Mayor of Holborn (Councillor George Cox, M.P.). The opening ceremony was performed by Mr. George Tomlinson, M.P., Minister of Education, who cordially welcomed the visitors. He believed that the match provided an excellent opportunity for the kind of personal contact which was so valuable in promoting international friendship. The Mayor's speech was followed by an encouraging contribution from Mr. V. N. Pavlov, Counsellor of the Soviet Embassy, deputising for the Ambassador. Mr. Ukraintsov then presented to Sir George Thomas, the senior member of the British team, a crimson pennant embroidered in gold as a memento of the match.

In order to give the Soviet team a chance to recuperate after their tiring journey, the start of the match was postponed to the day after the ceremony. The first round accordingly began on Sunday, September 21st. Long before the time of opening, a queue had begun to form, and by 2 p.m. the crowd of spectators was many times greater than could be accommodated in the playing room. It was therefore found necessary, throughout the match, to institute a rationing system by means of numbered tickets, so that some 30 spectators could be admitted to the playing room every quarter of an hour to watch the actual play. Meanwhile the moves were relayed by industrious couriers on to demonstration boards some distance away in the Council Chamber of the Town Hall, where spectators were able to follow the progress of each game in every detail. Running commentaries were provided by experts and great excitement prevailed. Throughout the three days of the match, the spectators' gallery in the playing room, as well as the seats in the Council Chamber, were full to capacity, and

indeed overcrowded, such was the enthusiasm aroused.

The second round of the match began on Monday, September 22nd, and adjourned games from both rounds were finished on September 23rd. Though the British team acquitted itself very creditably in the first round, gaining four points to the six of the U.S.S.R., it could only secure one single point in the second round, and the final score was 15 to the U.S.S.R. and five to Great Britain. The standard of chess throughout the match, however, was of a very high order, and the British team fought every game well.

The two teams were entertained to dinner at the Waldorf Hotel on September 24th. Mr. J. N. Derbyshire, President of the British Chess Federation, was in the chair, and among the guests were Mr. and Mrs. V. N. Pavlov, the Mayor of Holborn, and Mr. J. du Mont, British member of the referees' committee. Each of the visitors was presented with a specially inscribed copy of the Oxford University Press edition of Shakespeare's collected works. The very friendly atmosphere of the party that evening fittingly symbolised the excellent relations which had continued to develop between the two sides during the match.

As the visitors were able to obtain passages home on the S.S. *Sestroretsk*, the Soviet ship sailing from London to Leningrad on September 27th, they were unable to fulfil more than a small number of further engagements, which included a visit to University College, London, on September 24th, where they were received by the Provost, Professor D. R. Pye, F.R.S.; a visit to Cambridge, where they were received by the Masters of St. John's and Magdalene; a lecture by Mr. G. Kasparyan on Soviet Endgame studies at University College, London, on September 25th; and a simultaneous display by Mr. Bondarevsky and Mr. Tolush at the Students' Union, Imperial College of Science, London, organised by the University of London Chess Club and the Chess Education Society.

If the Soviet visitors succeeded in getting only a small fraction of the pleasure and benefit derived by their hosts from the visit, they must have thought it worth while.

"The Detail"

(continued from page 22)

His fingers trembled slightly and the cigarette turned out too thick and clumsy. Kononenko came back. The Commissar sighed and dropped heavily into his chair. Kononenko said with calm admiration:—

"Good work! But will you tell me that gave him away to you? I might find it helpful."

The Commissar leant back in his chair, half closed his eyes and put his hands behind his head.

"You see," he began slowly, "there was something fishy about him from the first glance. After he left I just sat and thought: What? What? What the hell was it? His hands? No, there was nothing special in that. The fact that they were very beautiful and carefully tended in itself is no proof. . . I have seen hammerers with hands which girls might envy. No, that was not it. Then what was it? And then it suddenly dawned on me. . . During the Civil War the Germans always entered Ukrainian towns beating the roll of drums. I was only a kid then, but this roll of drums stuck in my head as if it had been hammered in with nails. And when he was talking to me—it must have upset his nerves a bit—he was beating that roll of drums, you understand? But that's not all. That was only the reason for suspicion. His papers were in order—couldn't be better. The visit was entirely official. . . I decided to have one more little check up on him. . ."

"The Party card?" said Kononenko, impatiently.

The Commissar smiled. "Don't rush in where angels fear to tread. . . No! It was the cigarette. He was spinning a fine tale about his young days when he twisted cables in a factory, but couldn't roll a cigarette! This method is not popular in the Vaterland. They prefer ready-made stuff. But even that in itself was not a proof either—only a substantiation of my suspicions. What really gave him away was, after all, the Party card. . . Here, take a look at it!"

He handed Kononenko the card confiscated from the spy. Kononenko took it nearer the lamp and carefully studied page after page. Then he looked at the Commissar enquiringly. "I don't see it—seems all right to me."

"Well, I never!" The Commissar stretched his hand and gave Kononenko's fair forelock a playful tug. "And they trust you with state security! What's the good of seeing—you've got to *think*. Look. On what salary have the Party subscriptions been paid? Five hundred roubles! And now, how much do our Colonels get? See? That's the rub of it!"

"Yes, I must say. . ." said Kononenko in astonishment. "Well done!"

The Commissar laughed: "That's all there is to it—a mere detail. But in the end they all get caught on a detail. It's a risky job those blackguards take on. Only you must not let that detail slip from you—grab it by the tail and the bird's in the cage! Just you remember that," concluded the Commissar, skilfully and elaborately rolling another cigarette.

Translated by NINA BURCH.

Marjorie Bowen, Phyllis Bentley, Mrs.
Cecil Chesterton, Sylvia Townsend-Warner.

SOVIET WRITERS ANSWER THEIR QUESTIONS

IN the last issue of the *ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL* we gave the first section of the answers of distinguished Soviet writers to questions submitted by British writers. The remainder of the questions and answers are printed in this issue.

This literary Brains Trust was arranged by the S.C.R. through V.O.K.S., its opposite number in the Soviet Union.

MARJORIE BOWEN : *Travel books are very popular here now. Do Soviet writers travel and write accounts of their experiences? Are biographies of foreign explorers and adventurers popular in the Soviet Union?*

Samuel Marshak : Soviet writers travel extensively. They go to Central Asia, to the Caucasus, to Siberia, to the many new construction sites in our country, to collective farms and large industrial plants. They accompanied our armies on thousand-mile marches. Many writers have been abroad. Ehrenburg, Simonov, and Tikhonov have given us accounts of their impressions of foreign places. Gorbatov has written a book about the Arctic. Prishvin, the trail-blazer and nature-lover, has given us original books about his wanderings through the virgin forests of our land.

Many books have been written about foreign travellers. Among the most popular of them are Amundsen, Scott, Nansen, Cook and Livingstone. The "Young Guard Publishers", which specialises in books for young people, puts out a great many books on travel and adventure. It publishes a special "Travel Library".

Marietta Shaginyan : We do a great deal of travelling. It takes twenty days on the train to go from Vladivostok to Dzhusfa. There are places in our country which are inaccessible for pedestrian or vehicular traffic, requiring travelling by mule or camel. In October, 1946, I went to Siberia and Central Asia. First, in the Altai mountains, I got caught in a blizzard, then I had a swim in Issyk-Kul Lake, while in Samarkand I suffocated with the heat. We adore travelling. The newspapers help us indulge this taste by commissioning us to contribute travelogues. Our country is changing and being built up so quickly that we scarcely recognise cities from year to year.

Vasili Yan : If they wish to visit some part of the country, our writers may receive a commission to go there, thus having all their expenses paid, and on arrival, they are insured assistance in gathering whatever information they need from the local branch of the Union of Soviet Writers.

MARJORIE BOWEN : *Is there a school of "pure" literature, i.e., fiction set back before*

the war of 1914-1918, so as to clear modern upheavals? Examples of what I mean are Francois Mauriac in French, Walter de la Mare in English—"Art for Art's sake" with no social teaching implied?

Alexander Leites : It seems to me that the question is wrongly formulated, and the incorrect formulation may lead to confusion. The confusion consists in the assumption that there exists such a thing as "pure literature". The literature belonging to "art for art's sake", locking itself up in its ivory towers, retreating from reality, expresses the reactionary political tendencies of separate writers. In 1914 Maxim Gorky said of such writers: "The followers of so-called art for art's sake are the most tendentious of all artists, in spite of their denunciation of and hostility to a social tendency in art."

It is just for this reason that for Soviet writers, "pure" literature is a conception as full of contradictions as the conception of a "squared circle". Certain writers who avoid contemporary themes, preferring to play with experiments, seem to our readers to be reactionary and behind the times, and do not enjoy popularity.

MARJORIE BOWEN : *Are there many women writers, and do any of them write from the point of view of women? The only novels by Russian women which I have read might have been written by men.*

Vera Inber : This question is of particular interest to me, as I myself am a woman writer. Are there many women writers in the Soviet Union? Yes, we have quite a number, but evidently not as many as in England.

As far as I know, England is the classic country of women of letters. This, of course, is very good, if only these women are urged by an innate calling to write and do not regard the pursuit of literature as a kind of substitute for failure in private life.

As regards a specific "woman's point of view," I am not sure what is to be understood by such point of view. Does this imply only the fate of women portrayed in novels, or does it refer to men as seen through the eyes of women? Does the "woman's point of view" signify a book which will be read by women only?

No, we here pursue no such aims. The themes of our women writers are far broader. They naturally include love and family relationships, questions of motherhood, and so on. All of these are included, but they do not dominate our themes.

I can mention here the names of several women of letters—the most significant. There are far more, and this list will not include women poets nor women literary critics. It is a list of purely prose writers.

Lydia Seifulina was one of the first to portray a type of Russian woman changed after the Revolution.

Marietta Shaginyan is a novelist and journalist. While being a specialist in economics, she is also a Doctor of Philology. She is one of our most talented women writers and, without a doubt, is the most erudite.

Anna Karavaeva among other themes also writes on problems of the family and everyday life both urban and rural.

Valeria Gerasimova is a representative of the younger generation. She has an innate gift for subtle and singular analyses of human relationship in socialist society.

Olga Forsh is our oldest woman writer-historian, and the author of many novels on the past history of Russia.

Anna Antonovskaya also writes historical novels. Her novel on the history of Georgia won a Stalin Prize.

Vera Panova is a clever and subtle writer on topics from every-day life. She possesses a fine sense of humour.

I myself write prose as well as poetry. My "Leningrad Diary", written in besieged Leningrad, won a Stalin Prize.

As can be seen from this far from inclusive enumeration, the range of our themes is very great. And our books are read by the general reading public irrespective of sex.

Very many of the letters we receive from our readers are signed by men. We do not, however, regard this as a shortcoming—on the contrary. In my opinion, the ideal "woman's" literature should be works in which masculine intellect is combined with feminine intuition. This is a goal to which, I think, all women writers should aim.

But if "woman's" literature is to mean those endearing, parlour-novels of an entertaining or heart-breaking nature—then we have no such thing. Nor do we regret it.

MARJORIE BOWEN: *Who are your satirical writers, or writers of light comedy?*

David Zaslavsky: Our list of popular writers of light comedy includes Shrarkin, Kataev, Faiko, Pogodin, Finn and Ardov. The young dramatist Laskin shows a fine gift for comedy. And good comedies have been written by Alexander Korneichuk.

MARJORIE BOWEN: *Are there any historical novels based on the history of other countries? One such has been translated, "Old England" and is excellent, but it is more a period piece than a work dealing with historical crises.*

Vasili Yan: Ilya Ehrenburg's "The Fall of Paris".

Corneli Zelinsky: In the Soviet Union we are experiencing a peculiar process of re-discovering

our own countries in relation to literature. Many peoples who lived mutely and unknown in old tsarist Russia are now reviving and are giving voice in their own languages about their own history. In many republics there are now appearing interesting novels on historical themes, including works which open new pages in the life of different peoples—pages hitherto unknown to the Russian reader.

Of these historical novels I can name the works by the Georgian novelist Constantin Gamsakhurdia—"David the Renovator" and "The Hand of the Great Master Craftsman"—relating to the history of Georgia in the 11th century, a flourishing period in the cultural and state life of Georgia; the Armenian novel by Stepan Zoryan, "King Pap", describing Armenia in the 4th century; the Uzbek novel "Navoi" by Aibek, in which the hero is Alisher Navoi, the great Uzbek poet of the 15th century; the Kazakh novel "Abai" by Mukhtar Auezov, about the famous Kazakh writer Abai Kunanbaev, who lived in the second half of the 19th century. The last mentioned novel describes nomadic life on the Kazakh steppes before the Soviet Revolution. This singular "nomad novel" was written by one who had himself, in his childhood, led a nomad's existence with his parents. Mukhtar Auezov is today one of the most widely cultivated people of Soviet Kazakhstan, and is a member of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences.

All the novels mentioned above have been translated into Russian.

PHYLLIS BENTLEY: *How many novels are published yearly in the U.S.S.R.? What is their average distribution? Please name a recent notable Russian novel, with its author, in each of the following categories: Historical, Regional, Humorous. Have these been translated into English? Do detective novels exist?*

Vasili Yan: Thanks to universal literacy and the tremendous increase in the number of people interested in literature, the enormous number of novels of all kinds published in the Soviet Union is insufficient to satisfy the demand of readers.

Of the best known novels I can name A. Tolstoy's "Peter I", Sholokhov's "And Quiet Flows the Don", Fadeyev's "The Young General", S. Golubov's "Bagratiyon", Zadornov's "Amur-batyushka", and Aibek's "Navoi"—the last-named translated from the Uzbek.

Tamara Motyleva: The detective novel should not be idealised. The specific nature of Soviet literature (concentration on character, man's inner world, his moral development, etc.) restricts the possibilities of this genre, the more so in that the Soviet reader has no ingrained, morbid curiosity in respect to crime. Our press—as distinct from that of the West—does not chase after such "scoops" and sensations.

Corneli Zelinsky: I should like to say a word about the term "Regional" literature. In the U.S.S.R. this term has assumed new meaning. Formerly residents of St. Petersburg and Moscow wrote of and for the provinces, and this was called "regional literature". Nowadays "provincials", i.e., writers living in Smolensk, Gorky, Novosibirsk, Sverdlovsk, Stalingrad and other towns of the U.S.S.R., write of the life of their cities and regions, but their works are read with

interest by people from Moscow and Leningrad, and sometimes by the whole world.

Mikhail Sholokhov, for example, lives in the Cossack village of Veshenskaya, on the Don, and writes about his fellow-Cossacks. Is, then, his "Quiet Flows the Don", "regional literature"? No, it is universal literature. In my opinion the concept of "regional literature" needs revising. In the Soviet Union regional literature is called regional-lore literature, i.e., describing and disclosing the specific local features of a given territory.

Still, the hero of art is man, and not his domicile. That is why I personally, while liking travel novels and regional-lore and popular-science novels, still prefer books where vivid descriptions of country are combined with real characters. That is why I like Alexander Fadeyev's novel "The Last of the Udege".* In this novel the forceful and colourful descriptions of the life and natural surroundings of people inhabiting the South Ussuri Territory (in the Far East) are combined with a profound presentation of human character.

An average of up to 300 novels are published in the U.S.S.R. every year, in an average number of 25 to 30 thousand copies. Very often novels by popular writers run into a printing of 100,000 copies. Yet they are bought up so quickly that unless one keeps daily track of new books coming into the bookshops it is practically impossible to get them. Book queues line up outside the shops whenever a new novel by some popular writer appears.

PHYLLIS BENTLEY: *What is the library system of the U.S.S.R.?—i.e., are there (a) municipal libraries, (b) subscription libraries, as in England? Do the majority of readers buy or borrow books?*

Vasili Yan: As the number of copies of books published in the U.S.S.R., however tremendous it be, cannot cope with the demand, most of the people avail themselves of the libraries. There are no subscription libraries in the Soviet Union. All libraries are maintained by the State or co-operative and public organisations, and offer readers book services free of charge.

Corneli Zelinsky: In the Soviet Union there are more than 70,000 libraries (municipal, village, co-operative, institutional, factory and others). Book services in these libraries are free of charge. Many collective farms now have their own libraries. Most people borrow from them, but a great many people build up their own private libraries. The late Demyan Bedny, the well-known poet, had a private library of over 100,000 books.

Many writers' libraries were lost during the war. In the first days of the war a German bomb wrecked and burned in Moscow the library of rare Byelorussian books and MSS. owned by the Byelorussian people's poet Yanka Kupala. The books belonging to many Ukrainian writers were also lost, including the large private library of the poet and Academician Pavlo Tychina, which was looted by the Germans during their occupation of Kiev. Many Leningrad writers likewise lost their books. In Moscow the large private library of Vsevolod Ivanov was destroyed by fire. Millions of books in the state and public libraries of the Ukraine and Byelorussia

were totally destroyed during the German occupation.

As an old book-lover and book-collector I particularly feel this irreparable loss. My own library is comparatively small—five or six thousand books—but it includes a well selected collection of art literature and critical periodicals (newspapers and journals) of the Soviet period.

At the Writers' Club in Moscow there is a circle of bibliophiles which holds "old-book" evenings. In the second-hand bookshops run by the Soviet Writer Publishers there is a special section servicing writers. This section collects and selects books in filling special orders received from writers.

PHYLLIS BENTLEY: *How does a young unknown writer make his literary career?—i.e., how does he get his work published? How is he paid? If his books prove unacceptable or unsuccessful, is he allowed to continue giving his whole time to writing, or must he do other work?*

Leonid Leonov: The young writer in the U.S.S.R. is ensured everything, beginning with a literary education (there is a Literature Institute under the auspices of the Union of Writers, large numbers of literary circles at various enterprises, the convening of regular conferences of provincial writers and dramatists, at which prominent writers give consultations and speak of their own experience) and ending with the young writer's first literary debut. He has every opportunity to compete with any other—even the most popular—author, in regards to honorariums, number of printings, and public attention. Often, even with an unsuccessful first book, an author continues his work in literature (proof of this is to be seen in the many hoary heads at the above-mentioned conferences, men marked more for their pertinacity in attaining to creative activity rather than for innate talent) though this does not always bring real benefit to our credulous readers, who are so thirsty for new books that they are often "stung". Any first book, in my opinion, should be successful: it usually focuses the personal biographical experience of its author, of his family and his immediate surroundings; this is an easy labour. The profession starts when oil ceases to gush from the soil of its own accord, and able technology, knowledge and skill are needed to bring it up from the depths to the surface.

Nikolai Tikhonov: The new writer usually submits his book to the editors of some literary journal, where the work is painstakingly read; if his venture—be it verse or prose—shows signs of talent, the author is invited to call on the editors and, by joint efforts, his work is prepared for press. I am not speaking of the editor's influence on such an author's work, but of the manuscript's preparation for press. If the poet's verses begin to appear in periodicals, he will gradually accumulate enough poems for a book. This book is printed by the publishers, and the poet gets his first criticisms—he is either recognised as something new in poetry, or is merely mentioned as something in the daily run of things (just one more book of readable verses), or he is subjected to the criticism which every young writer—unless he enjoys extraordinary success from the very start—must expect to receive in his literary career.

Should the book prove unsuccessful, however it is left with the author himself to decide whether

to continue trying his abilities in literature or to admit that he is not born to be a writer and to find for himself some other calling in the field of letters—that of critic, translator, or scenarist, for instance, instead of a poet. The domain of literature is open to all for unhindered contest of talents and other than the desire and aspiration, no permission is needed from any one for the right to occupy oneself in literary efforts.

Literature is also taken up by people of other professions. Vera Panova, for example, the author of the novel "Companions", published serially in the literary magazine *Znamya* was formerly a journalist. Alexei Nekrasov, the author of the novel "Stalingrad", also published in this periodical, was an architect before the war, a sapper officer during the war, and took up literature only after the war ended.

Pavel Antokolsky : A young writer sends or brings his manuscript to the editors of the newspaper or journal he chooses. This "unsolicited" inflow in most cases reaches vast—and sometimes really stupendous—dimensions. The editors have to appoint a special staff of consultants to deal with this flood of mail and reply to it. If the beginner's claims to attention have any grounds whatever, he is given a detailed and circumstantial reply, which sometimes acquires the scope of a treatise.

Needless to say, difference of opinion and appraisal is quite possible here ; young authors (and indeed, writers of all ages) usually suffer from too high an opinion of their own work and very rarely agree with criticism. There begins an exchange of correspondence which sometimes becomes sharp with the author's reproaches, under fire of which the editor remains adamant. But these are particular cases which hardly offer any interest to our English colleagues. Of far greater interest are the rarer cases, when a star of genuine talent rises suddenly on the horizon. Every editorial board is highly interested in being first to "discover" new talent, and first to print on the pages of their journal or newspaper some new, hitherto unknown name.

Preparations are now on hand to convene the first congress of young writers.* This is a great and responsible undertaking of nation-wide scope and significance. Many older writers are to take part as speakers and seminar leaders. Most of the delegates are little-known young people whose writings are printed only in the provinces ; they are sent as delegates by the writers' organisations of the various republics and regions.

Today, under post-war conditions, when Soviet young people have just emerged from a tremendous historical experience, interest in their creative endeavours is greater than ever and the task of guiding and helping them has never been so urgent. In these years talented young people have already made their advent in Soviet literature, in poetry in particular, as poetry is the art of youth. They prove to be worthy successors to the older generation of Soviet poets. Here I would like to name several poets who have advanced to the fore in the past two or three years and have most expressively proved their talents. They are Gudzenko, Dudin, Lukonin, Mezhirov and Maximon—all veterans of the Patriotic War, still in their twenties. Several of them have already published books of verse. Their works, born in the fire of the battlefield, are marked by vigorous

lyricism and keen observation. They are our hope and our future.

PHYLLIS BENTLEY : *In England very many towns and villages have a group of amateur actors who present plays in their leisure time. Is there a similar amateur dramatic movement in the U.S.S.R. ? How does it work ?*

Pavel Antokolsky : Our amateur dramatic movement is of a different, more democratic nature than in the West. Dramatic circles spontaneously spring into being at all large factories, at all higher educational establishments and on many collective farms. In most cases this is amateur art, but sometimes these circles are guided by professional stage producers. Some of these theatrical circles expand and grow and talented members become professionals. In fact, the entire group may become a professional company. This was the case, for example, some twenty-odd years ago, when theatres were developed from the young workers' amateur dramatic circles, and young workers' theatres began to appear.

At the beginning and in the middle of the 'thirties, similar developments started on the collective farms. Small troupes of enthusiastic amateur actors—mainly young people—travelled from farm to farm with their own repertory, their own style of performance and their own principles of stage production, conditioned by their nomadic mode of existence. Many interesting stories could be told of the life and growth of such amateur art companies, and they will no doubt in time be related in our literature.

Samuel Marshak : The state gives broad assistance to amateur art activities. The government committees on art arrange special courses and conferences so as to give the leaders of the numerous dramatic circles the opportunity to raise their qualifications. The *Iskustvo* (Art) and *Molodaya Gvardia* (Young Guard) publishing houses put out special theatrical libraries with each playscript provided with producer's remarks and various practical indications as to how the play can be best staged without any great expenditure, and on the simplest kind of stage.

There are, however, some large amateur companies which undertake difficult and complicated productions.

From time to time amateur art reviews are held in Moscow and other large centres of the U.S.S.R., and the best stage productions are awarded prizes.

MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON : *Is there a law of libel in the U.S.S.R. ?*

David Zaslavsky : Under Article 161 of the Penal Code, libel, i.e., the spreading of false information about another person, is punishable by compulsory labour for a term of up to six months or a fine of up to 500 rubles. Libel in the press is punished more severely—compulsory labour for a term of up to one year, or a fine of up to 1,000 rubles.

Slander is a very rare offence in the U.S.S.R., and libel in the press is practically unknown. This is due to the strict demands of the Soviet public towards the press, and the strict responsibility of Soviet journalists towards the public. As a general rule no unchecked and unconfirmed

facts ever find their way into the press. What is more, the Soviet press considers it improper to touch on the private life of citizens.

MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON: *Do you consider that any modern Soviet writer has a genius for satire equal to Zoshchenko's?*

David Zaslavsky: Some 30 years ago Zoshchenko attracted attention by his short, witty stories, the main characters of which were petty people, philistines in status and spirit, money-grubbers and mercenaries. This young writer gave great promise, but he never justified the hopes placed in him. He did not develop and did not keep abreast of the swift onward progress of Soviet life. He continued marking time, and all these 30 years he has been writing and re-writing his own self, ever drawing only that self-same petty, ignorant and mercenary character. His wit petered out. Laughter changed into vicious grumbling and slandering of Soviet life.

In latter years he had no success whatever among readers, and instead of writing short stories, he turned to mediocre and vulgar works of an allegedly philosophical nature, having nothing in common with either literature or science.

Igor Satz: The question as put implies that there was a general recognition of Zoshchenko's high talent, as though—like the famous metre of platinum in Paris—he were a yardstick for gauging the merits of all other writers. As is known, among Soviet writers and critics Zoshchenko was never recognised as the uncrowned king of modern satire. We shall gladly explain what defects in Zoshchenko's work has always, and especially in recent years, evoked the sharp criticism of the Soviet reading public.

At the dawn of his literary career Zoshchenko belonged to that group of bourgeois literary young people which cynically flaunted its lack of all political ideology. This, without a doubt, influenced Zoshchenko also in a later period, when he would have felt ashamed to proclaim such a programme. But way back in those first years he made an interesting discovery, and it was this that brought him fame. He revealed the type of philistine, i.e., the person who floundered in petty, self-seeking relations towards people and towards life in general, the person who tried to enter into the new—and to him, alien—Soviet life, and yet remain his own self, the selfsame egoistic philistine.

Zoshchenko elaborated this type over a period of more than 20 years, weighing and considering various means of its adaptation—from instinctive mimicry to patently devised tricks. Zoshchenko concentrated all his literary abilities on depicting precisely this type. The better to convey the crazy mixture resulting in this man's soul and mind, Zoshchenko found a corresponding vehicles of literature: an anecdote related in the first person, with the "narrator" nearly always himself a petty person, thus doubling the parody on actuality. The actual fact forming the base of such an anecdote-plot of the story was usually primitive and without any claims to originality (Zoshchenko often borrowed his subject matter) and still less to realism.

To accept Zoshchenko's stories as descriptions of every-day life not only means having totally absurd ideas of life, but also having no understanding whatever of Zoshchenko; it would

have been just as reasonable as envisaging, for example, a realistic description of an English man of science in Jonathan Swift's academical who searched in excrement for manifestations of a political world-outlook. No, Zoshchenko's subjects are not true to life. They are caricatures, grotesque figments of the imagination, and often very crude.

The language of Zoshchenko's stories is of an artificial and deliberately constructed nature. It is the Russian equivalent of Billingsgate, the language of the petty profiteer, the scandal-monger, mingled with the idiom of the bureaucrat, the misuse of bookish words, and the abused vocabulary of poetry and science. This literary parody style brought the author a name, though among Soviet readers Zoshchenko evoked a great deal of indignation by the crude vulgarity and cynical nature of his writings.

As Soviet social and economic life advanced during the latter half of the 'twenties, Zoshchenko characters receded into the past, like all other remnants of the old bourgeois world. But, contrary to the logic of life, even then Zoshchenko stuck to his former outlook, which no longer corresponded to the new pattern of living.

The decline in popularity of his stories failed to serve him as a lesson, and even in the years of the Great Patriotic War he was unable to join up his literary work with the wartime efforts of the people.

In 1943, when all Soviet people were heroically straining every effort in their fight against fascism, Zoshchenko appeared with his story "Before Sunrise", wherein lifeless tones and a spirit of isolation from life were blended with a morbid and cynical ferreting into marital relationships.

Nor were his stories on wartime subjects any better. Use of his timeworn style and manner in depicting the present day turned into literary libel against the Soviet person.

While the Soviet person, in defending his country and his culture, proved his spiritual greatness to the whole world, Zoshchenko persisted in portraying him as a slow-witted dullard. How on earth could our simple Soviet person—our reader—forgive Zoshchenko for such calumny!

We shall not waste time trying to guess how far such a result was in accord or in divergence from the author's intentions. The fact remains that he wrote reactionary works, very much to the liking of all foes of socialism. The Union of Soviet Writers had no desire to leave Zoshchenko as a member nor print his writings in its publications. It is for the future to show whether Zoshchenko has the spiritual strength to free himself from the bog into which he has floundered.

MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON: *What modern writers would the Brains Trust consider ranked for humour with Ilf and Petrov?*

David Zaslavsky: The list of modern Soviet humorists includes Valentin Kataev, Slobodsky, Aduiev, Lench, Ardov, Ryklin and others. These are, so to say, professional humorists, and some of them are permanent staff members of the popular comic journal *Crocodile*. The death of Ilf and Petrov was a great loss to Soviet literature, and especially to Soviet humour. One can hardly speak of the replacement of

such skilful humorists, but in the persons of Valentin Kataev and Slobodsky, we have distinguished writers in this field. There is also rich humour in the works of Mikhail Sholokhov and the late Alexei Tolstoy, and in the verses of Tvardovsky, Marshak, Mikhailov and Lebedev-Kumach, and in the plays of Alexander Korneichuk.

MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON : *Which three Soviet novels would the Brains Trust consider the most significant within the last ten years?*

Marietta Shaginyan : Yuri Krymov's "Tanker Derbent", Mikhail Sholokhov's "And Quiet Flows the Don" and Alexander Fadeyev's "The Young Guard".

Vasili Yan : "Quiet Flows the Don", "Peter I" and "The Young Guard".

MRS. CECIL CHESTERTON : *Would the Brains Trust say that the contemporary Soviet novel is chiefly concerned with mass psychology or is there a trend towards more individual characterisation?*

Igor Satz : Such an antithesis as mass psychology or individual psychology is in general alien to Soviet literature, and to the Soviet novel in particular. "Man—the Mass" was devised after the first world war by the German expressionists (Ernst Toller and others) who, in our opinion, were far removed from socialism, from the working class, from the people and from the people's life and ideology. Only in such surroundings of enthusiasm over "collectivism" as an aim in itself, without a concrete and actual historical outlook on this problem, could anyone sing the praises of a standardised and impersonalised "mass". In the long run, many of these German expressionists fell under the influence of regimented Prussian collectivism, and eventually under the levelling of fascism.

As opposed to this bourgeois-intellectual group, Soviet workers of culture had a strong kernel which had developed from the people and was closely bound up with the life of the people. And, of course, the ex-baker Alexei Peshkov, who became the world-famous writer Maxim Gorky, a man of highly original and striking nature—could never have thought of concocting the joyless phantasmagoria of "man—the mass". It will suffice to recall Gorky's stories "The Mother" and "Kononov".

There was, in 1918-1920, a small group of writers—the so-called "Proletcult"—Proletarian Culture—whose leaders were not Marxists but followers of Alexander Bogdanov—the Russian disciple of the neopositivist Ernst Mach. Together with machism, this group assimilated and endeavoured to spread in the Soviet land the futuristic and expressionistic trend borrowed from the West. But it had no success: none of the workman readers wished to believe that he was merely "part of the mass". We can, however, cite one novel—Malyshev's "The Fall of Dair"—into which seeped the symbolic, conventional "mass-nature" partly reminiscent of Verhaeren. This novel has its poetical merits and it gives a singular reflection of the elemental aspect of the civil war. But as an example of a concrete means for depicting reality, it is not typical of Soviet literature.

We cannot conceive greater individualism than that found in Furmanov's "Chapayev" (1923), Fadeyev's "The Rout" (1925), and other books. These are all realistic novels with living characters. In Alexei Tolstoy's "Peter I", in "Kukhlya", "The Death of Vazir-Mukhtar" and "Pushkin" by Tynyanov, and in other historical novels, even the most exacting reader will find no trace of the levelling of personalities. We think the characters of Soviet novels are far less stylised than, say, the heroes of Hemingway's books, let alone in works by less gifted writers in the West.

We get the impression that the question we are now answering was perhaps prompted by the prejudiced opinion current in the West that socialism means drowning the individual in the mass. If this be so, then the best way of disproving this prejudice would be through an acquaintance with Soviet literature.

SYLVIA TOWNSEND-WARNER : *Before the war writers in the U.S.S.R were experimenting with group-writing: several writers collaborating on the writing of one book. Have these experiments continued, and what do you consider the prospects of this method?*

Sergein Mikhailov : Co-authorship of two or more writers working on one book is practised in the U.S.S.R. and we can mention a number of cases of successful collaboration in the writing of novels, plays, librettos, songs, etc. A classic example of such collective work is the joint writing by the late Ilf and Petrov. Their artistic collaboration on the basis of close companionship and mutual understanding gave Soviet and foreign readers such splendid novels as "The Twelve Chairs" and "The Golden Calf", besides numerous witty short stories and articles.

Many of the plays produced on the Soviet stage are written by two, and sometimes three authors. Among the recent stage successes in Moscow are two plays—"Fakir for an Hour" and "The Eleven Unknown."* The first comedy was written by two authors: V. Dykhovichny and M. Slobodsky, and the second by three authors: V. Dykhovichny, Slobodsky and B. Laskin. A number of plays have been written by the Toor brothers.

Why do authors write jointly or collectively? I think that the basis for such a relationship lies in a personal friendship so strong that understanding of each other is complete. In such cases, each collaborator supplements the other. There's a good Russian proverb—"One brain is good, but two are better." There is another axiom that "truth is born of disputes." It is probably these aspects which made literary collaboration possible. Still, collective work on a book remains the exception, and independent, individual endeavour the general rule.

SYLVIA TOWNSEND-WARNER : *How far does the custom of keeping a personal diary—either of day-to-day events or of states of mind—prevail among citizens of U.S.S.R.? I mean the kind of diary which is kept as a private pleasure, with no thoughts of publication. (May I add that I hope many diaries are being kept, and will be preserved, for they will be of immense value to future historians.)*

Marietta Shaginyan : Many of our people keep diaries—for their own personal pleasure.

Some of them get published in time, as, for instance, my diary about the first years of the Soviet system, and Vera Inber's diary about the siege of Leningrad.

S. DAVIS: Which six authors would you recommend to an English reader who wants to obtain from Russian literature a clear idea of the principal characteristics of the Russian people?

Vasili Yan: "Men of Clear Conscience" by Vershigora, "The Young Guard" by Alexander Fadeyev, "Companions" by Vera Panova, "The Unvanquished" by Boris Gorbатов, "Four Springs" by Nina Emelyanova, and "The Story of a Real Man" by Boris Polevoy.

Nikolai Tikhonov: I take it this question refers to modern Soviet literature. In that case I would recommend the following authors: Maxim Gorky, Mikhail Sholokhov, Alexei Tolstoy, Alexander Fadeyev, Nikolai Ostrovsky and Dmitri Furmanov.

Alexander Isbakh: I would name Furmanov, Sholokhov, Fadeyev, Mayakovsky, Ostrovsky and Gorky. If the question called for it, I would name Bagritsky as a seventh.

Mikhail Morozov: I recommend Maxim Gorky, Mikhail Sholokhov, Vladimir Mayakovsky, Leonid Leonov, Alexander Fadeyev and Alexei Tolstoy.

S. DAVIS: In what essential respect does Soviet literature differ from pre-Revolutionary literature?

Vasili Yan: In the consistently democratic and national nature of its ideas and characters and also in the fact that Soviet literature is nearer and more comprehensible to the people.

Marietta Shaginyan: I should like to help our English friends understand the nature of Soviet literature, understand just what factors constitute its new and specific features. People of my age and generation, who have lived half their lives under tsarism, are very naturally inclined to compare the old and the new.

In my childhood and girlhood my favourite book was Dickens' "Our Mutual Friend". It was the first book I ever read in English. I liked its moral tendency and its lashing satire of society as represented by the Veneerings and their crowd. Strange as it may seem, however, every time I re-read the book, it left me with a very sad impression. I always had difficulty in keeping back my tears, although I could not tell what it was that made me want to cry, for, essentially, "Our Mutual Friend" is an amazingly cheerful book, amazingly cheerful even for Dickens. It is a book with a happy ending. Evil is amply punished, virtue triumphs, all the heroines find their heroes and marry them. John marries Bella, Eugene marries Lizzy, Veneria becomes the wife of Pleasant, and even lame little Jenny finds a husband. Even in the circle of the heartless Veneerings there is one real human being—Twemlow.

Then why this feeling of sadness? In Dickens' novel the aristocratic Eugene marries Lizzy, who is only a plain girl of the people. His barrister friend desires to learn what public opinion has to say of this fact, and accordingly attends an official dinner held by the Veneerings. Society, of course, sternly condemns Eugene's

act, but Twemlow, a small timid man who was dependent upon all the others, ventured to oppose "society" and express his own opinion. He said that it was a matter of a gentleman's feelings for a lady and that no one had the right to interfere in these feelings. These words of defence cause the barrister to "be reconciled to mankind."

Again I ask, therefore, why this feeling of sadness? It is evoked by a terrible, hopeless sense of loneliness arising from the abnormal relations between the individual and society; it is evoked by the sudden realisation of the amazing fact that happiness is "the private affair of every individual"; it is evoked by the spiritual loneliness of each man, each family, each husband and wife, a loneliness like that of islands scattered in the boundless human ocean, where waters separate each from the other; it is caused by the fact that the only voice raised in defence is the voice of Twemlow.

In this respect Soviet literature can serve the English reader as an example of a totally new optimism. We have books which seem to end sadly in all respects: the heroes do not marry, the good characters die, evil remains unpunished and virtue unrewarded. Nevertheless, when you put such a book aside you experience a fresh wave of love of life, of faith in life, an inrush of new strength. Why? Because in our country society and the individual are not divided from each other by a blank wall. Man lives in society. In Soviet literature man is not a stepchild of history but its creator. For him the "voice of society" is not a voice from the sidelines. He himself is the voice of society. Every personal conflict makes him realise the social significance of the life of every individual.

English readers have praised Sholokov's novel "And Quiet Flows the Don" for its objectivity, and this is indeed a book of great epic objectivity. And what a wonderful idea runs through all the four volumes like a red thread! One may think that the novel also concludes with a happy ending: after all his griefs and trials, drawn by his longing for his family, Grigori, the central character of the book, returns home to his son. Nevertheless, Sholokhov discloses that this "happy ending" is really a human tragedy. The father who returns home to his son is a man who is done for, he has nothing to live for. Why? Because Grigori has lost his ties with society. Grigori has stopped making history. He has failed to find a place for himself in life. He has placed himself outside of the masses, he has lost his way and remains alone. Superfluous to himself and to his family, he comes home to die and not to live.

The great and lucid idea of man's ties with society and history lies at the basis of all Soviet literature and permeates all Soviet literature. In our country the individual is closely connected with society. His task is to make history, to work and fight together with his people and in unseverable connection with them. Isolation means unhappiness and misfortune. This is the idea that has fanned the flame of our optimism. You have seen this idea in action when the whole Soviet people, every man and every woman, rose in defence of their country. English writers may find in this idea the key to those Soviet books which they have read. We, for our part, take this idea as our criterion in judging literary works.

NOTES AND NEWS

Education

Lithuania : In September, 1947, there were nearly 3,500 schools in Lithuania. More than a million text books have been published in the Lithuanian language.

In Viborg, Finno-Karelia, seven secondary schools, a teacher-training school, as well as a theatre and factory clubs are now in full use.

Latin will be introduced in the upper forms of secondary schools in September, 1948, as a beginning in four schools in Moscow, in two in Leningrad, and in three in Saratov, Sverdlovsk and Kazan.

Chess is being made compulsory by the Estonian Ministry of Education in all schools for one hour per week.

Textbooks : A total edition of 71 million textbooks—16 million more than in 1946—for elementary and secondary schools will be published this year by the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation.

New Sports Schools for children are opening in Moscow, Leningrad, Sverdlovsk, Murmansk, Novosibirsk, Smolensk, Rostov-on-Don, and in other towns of the Russian Federation. By 1950 they will number 300. Children will attend these schools after school hours. There are 80 children's sports schools up to the present.

240,000 New Entrants—young men and women to be trained as builders, metal workers, metallurgists, miners, oil workers, railwaymen, textile workers, etc.—have been enrolled in the railway and factory vocational schools run by the Ministry of Labour Reserves of the U.S.S.R.

The Arts : Over 12,000 new students will be admitted in 1947 to higher educational establishments for the study of music and the arts in the U.S.S.R. The oldest among 650 such establishments in the U.S.S.R. are the Arts Academy of the Russian Federation and the Leningrad Ballet School, which is more than 200 years old, and the youngest is the Theatrical Institute, founded in Central Asia two years ago. Some 5,500 students will be admitted to music schools.

100,000 Graduates : Higher education institutions graduated 100,000 students in July, 1947. They will work in the main in iron and steel, coal-mining, oil, chemical, machine-tool construction, railway transport and building industries. In September 187,500 new students entered universities and institutes. Large-scale restoration work was carried out.

Nine million copies of textbooks for universities and institutes are being published this year—nearly twice as many as last year.

The graduates include over 16,000 engineers, agricultural experts, doctors and teachers trained in 78 Moscow institutions. The Moscow Baumann Higher Technical School has graduated 297 highly-qualified engineers in 24 branches.

The Lenin Pedagogical Institute graduated 500 teachers in 18 specialities, the majority of whom will teach in the Khabarovsk and Maritime Territories.

Post-Graduates numbered over 12,500 in the U.S.S.R. ; 8,600 are studying in higher educational institutions. A considerable number are in academies and research institutions.

The training of specialists in philosophy, logic, political economy, history, Russian language, legal studies and new branches of technology is being extended.

Science

Science : The U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences controls a large number of branches and bases uniting 30 research institutes, several annual reservations and a number of experimental stations. Last year these institutions were engaged on 55 scientific problems and sent out some 300 expeditions. Urals scientists have evolved a new method of chromium-plating metal articles, and a method of using oxygen-enriched air in non-ferrous metallurgy. Tadjik scientists have succeeded in producing dyeing and tanning stuffs from local herbs. The Academy intends to open a number of new scientific centres within the next few years, among them in the Crimea, Irkutsk and Astrakhan.

Desert Research : The Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences has decided to set up a special research centre in the Kara-Kum desert for the study of deserts, which cover an area of 740 million acres. The post-war Five-Year Plan envisages the development of vast tracts of desert land.

Chemistry : A group of Soviet scientists in the Glass Research Institute, under Professor Kitaigorodsky, have produced a new resisting fireproof heat material named "Steklorund." It can stand temperatures of 1850 degrees Centigrade. The application of steklorund will make it possible to raise the temperature of glass-making, thus considerably speeding up the process. It will also be used for cement kilns.

Palaeontology : The skeleton of an indrichotherium, known as the "father of all animals," has been discovered in Kazakhstan. This huge mammal dates back to the tertiary epoch. The skeleton found in the sand is seven metres in length and has a jaw measuring one metre. A special expedition was sent to Kazakhstan this summer to investigate and photograph the position of the skeleton and to find out the possibility of its excavation and transfer to Leningrad.

Archaeology : Excavation has been resumed in the Nikolayev Region of the Urakine on the site of the ancient city of Olvia, founded by the Scythians 2,500 years ago. This year's excavations brought to light a big two-storey building in which over 800 coins was discovered. This may have been the Olvian mint. At another spot a dwelling house was found.

Publication of English literature issued by the Fine Literature Publishing House include Marlow, Smollett and Fielding, four Dickens novels, some in new translations, "David Copperfield," "The Old Curiosity Shop," "Martin Chuzzlewit" and "Nicholas Nickleby."

Development

Air Port : A plan for a new Leningrad all purposes airport has been approved. It will be the biggest project of its kind.

Lithuania : Within two years of becoming Soviet 86,000 former farm labourers, poor and landless peasants, received over 1,800,000 acres of land from the State. In addition they received free over 20,000 houses and 47,000 farm buildings, over 7,000 horses, 11,500 head of cattle, a large quantity of farm machinery and implements, over one million cubic metres of timber and 90 million rubles in loans. Fifty-eight machine and tractor stations and 286 draught horse centres were established, 60,000 farmsteads have joined the co-operative movement.

Bashkiria : The project of a new town, Oktyabrsk, to be built at the Tuimazy oilfields in Bashkiria has been approved. The new town will be built on the site of a small workers' settlement. The project provides for the construction in the first place of houses to accommodate 30,000 residents, a theatre, a cinema, a club for engineers and technicians, a children's club, a museum, schools and many institutions for children. A public park, gardens for children and wide boulevards will form the town's green belt. A domestic gas supply will be laid on. Eight hundred two- and three-room cottages, equipped with all modern conveniences, are under construction. They will be sold to workers in the oilfields on a ten-year instalment plan.

Oirotia : The Oirots 25 years ago had no written language, and only one person in 2,000 was literate. Today there are 318 schools with 22,000 pupils, as well as medical, technical, teaching and other centres. This people, which was dying out from poverty, oppression and disease, and where thousands of children perished annually from small-pox and trachoma, today has 174 medical institutions with 420 doctors, assistant doctors and nursing sisters in attendance. The sown area has increased five-fold over the past quarter of a century; and gold manganese, mercury and copper are mined in an area which had no industry whatsoever.

Formerly roadless, the Region now has the great Chu motor-road and 630 miles of other roads. The Chemal hydro-electric station supplies power for the industry which is being further developed.

Komsomolsk : The 15 year old youth-built town has a growing industry, hundreds of com-

fortable houses, 11 hospitals and clinics, 36 schools, 40 nurseries and kindergartens; also a palace of culture, a theatre, 16 clubs and 30 libraries. Two new cinemas and a hotel have been completed within the past 12 months. Skilled labour is trained at shipbuilding and building-industry schools. This year the construction of several blocks of flats totalling 400,000 square feet of living space, two cinemas, a palace of culture for the Steel Workers' Union, a building industry school, and 705 individual family houses will be completed.

The Ust-Urt Desert Plateau : The Central Asian desert plateau of Ust-Urt, between the Caspian and Aral Seas, with an area bigger than Denmark, Belgium, Holland and Switzerland put together, was investigated for two years by a team of scientists from the Central Asian State University in Tashkent.

A development plan based on the report aims at converting the plateau into a new region for breeding astrakhan sheep. Experimental wintering-quarters for several thousand sheep are now being built in the heart of the desert, to occupy

no less than 248,000 acres. The Astrakhan Sheep-Breeding Research Institute, and a meteorological station will be attached to this centre.

Consumers' Co-operatives

September figures for consumers' co-operative societies in the U.S.S.R. show 28,000 societies with total shares exceeding 3,000 million rubles. This year co-operative societies set up some 9,000 stores and cafes in cities and settlements and increased the sale of goods to the rural population by 30 per cent.

In July and August co-operatives purchased over 200,000 tons of vegetables from the peasants direct.

The trade turnover of consumers' co-operative societies in 1947 will reach 68,000 million rubles.

Resources

Upper Irtysh : Large coal deposits with estimated reserves of several hundred million tons have been discovered in the upper reaches of the Irtysh river, formerly a blank spot on the geological map of the Soviet Union. The close proximity of a large water artery and the numerous ore deposits in the Altai create favourable prospects for the development of this new coal-field.

Large deposits of coking coal have been discovered in the Stalino-Makeyevka area of the Donets Basin in the Ukraine. Five mines are to be launched there, with an annual capacity of several million tons.

Coking-coal has also been found in the Krasnoarmeisk area, and large deposits of power-coal have been surveyed in the Chistyakov district.

A shaft is being sunk in the Izyum area—the first since the war—which will make it possible to extend the Donets Basin towards Kharkov and Dnepropetrovsk. Preliminary estimates are that the coal reserves in this area amount to several hundred million tons.

Rich iron-ore deposits have been found in the western part of the Karelo-Finnish Republic. Large magnetic anomalies have been discovered north of these deposits, which makes it possible to presume that still more iron-ore beds exist in this area.

Bauxite : Soviet geologists have discovered a big bauxite deposit in a remote corner of Siberia.

Botany : The catalogue of the Leningrad Botanical Gardens lists over 2,500 seeds, grown in the most varied climatic conditions of the U.S.S.R.—in the far North, the tropic arid districts of Central Asia, the sub-tropics, etc.

Medicine : Professor Anna Tonkikh claims to have established that the so-called sympathetic nodes of the vegetative nervous system, located in the region of the upper vertebrae, control the activity not only of the internal organs but also of the brain itself. By a series of experiments she was able to prove that a number of physiological processes, in particular sleep, as well as pathological conditions, are induced by the hypophysis. Under the influence of various irritants this gland excretes a liquid which finds its way into the brain hemispheres and induces sleep, fatigue or pathological conditions. Professor Tonkikh has also proved that pneumonia which appears after operations of the upper vertebrae is also due to irritation of the hypophysis.

Mathematics : The Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. has decided to resume in 1948 the award of an international prize in honour of the famous Russian mathematician, Nikolai Lobachevsky. The Presidium of the U.S.S.R. Academy of Sciences will award this 25,000 ruble prize to Soviet or foreign scientists every five years for the best studies in geometry, pre-eminently non-Euclidean geometry.

Geology Surveys : Fifty geological expeditions have returned to Moscow from Eastern Siberia, the North Urals and the Far East. All expeditions will complete their work within the next eighteen months.

Monetary appropriations for geological research are 2.5 times the 1940 level. The expeditions are equipped with the most up-to-date technique. The geologists have had 140 planes at their disposal, which has allowed them to organise reconnaissance over great expanses of land in the most remote and inaccessible regions. They have discovered great deposits of valuable raw materials in the Far East, a continuation of the Krivoy Rog iron basin, deposits of coal in Karaganda, and a considerable reserve of building materials in Byelorussia which are of great importance for the regions now undergoing reconstruction.

Seismic Prospecting : A factory building machines for geological prospecting has designed Europe's first seismic instrument for prospecting for mineral deposits. This instrument can reveal the presence of oil resources at a distance of 12 to 25 miles.

Expeditions to the Carpathians : The Carpathian Geological Institute has sent three scientific expeditions to the Carpathians.

Geography : Academician Lev Berg rejects Wegener's theory of Continental Drifts. He

claims that the epicentres of earthquakes have been registered at depths of 700 to 800 km. Therefore the basalt envelope in which continents are supposed to float cannot be molten but is a solid body. Other specially acquired facts point to the solidity of the earth according to Berg.

The Great Globe which the Nazis carried off from the Leningrad suburb of Pushkin, is back. It was made of copper in the 17th century and measures about ten feet in diameter. Inside it are benches to seat ten people and a smaller globe with the outlines of the continents engraved on it, while on the inner surface of the great sphere are represented the heavens. By means of special mechanism the globe makes a complete revolution upon its axis in 24 hours. The globe was presented to Peter the Great in 1713 by the Regent of the Duchy of Holstein.

Culture

U.S.S.R. Academy of Arts : The first session of the newly established Academy of Arts of the U.S.S.R. was held in Moscow in September.

Ancient Armenia : The new Matenadaran—museum of ancient manuscripts—is now under construction near Erevan, capital of Armenia. The collection includes 13,000 manuscript volumes, ancient printed publications and various documents. The new Matenadaran will be equipped with every modern improvement for the storage of valuable documents. Four storeys will be occupied by lecture halls, auditoria and reading rooms for scientists.

Music : Among Soviet composers who are working on new compositions, Sergei Prokofiev composed his Sixth Symphony for the celebrations of the 30th Anniversary of the Soviet State.

Aram Khachaturyan wrote a solemn overture for an orchestra and 30 trumpets.

Chaliapin : A book about the outstanding Russian opera singer has been written by the Leningrad music critic Yankovsky.

644,000,000 Books : Thirty-three thousand book titles totalling 644 million copies were published in the U.S.S.R. in the two post-war years. This year an average book impression is about 20,000 copies. More than 62 million books have been issued in the Ukraine and 11 million in Byelorussia in the past two years.

About one-third of all book titles appearing in the U.S.S.R. deal with political and economic subjects and one-quarter deals with science.

Stalin Prizes for Literature : A Decree of the Soviet Government issued in August increased the number of Stalin Prizes awarded annually for outstanding works of literature to twelve and established three classes of prizes instead of two. There will be three first class prizes of 100,000 rubles each, four second class prizes of 25,000 rubles each and five third class prizes of 25,000 rubles each.

Democracy

To educate Soviet citizens in the country's laws, People's Judges are obliged by law to make periodic reports to their districts when they meet criticism and discussion directed to improvement of the People's Courts. Lectures on the citizen's rights and obligations are frequent and widespread.

Large non-ferrous metal reserves including zinc ore, tin, antimony, vanadium and molybdenum have also been discovered there.

Ozocerite : A new deposit of ozocerite—the largest in the Soviet Union—has been discovered in Central Asia. This mineral is extensively used in the electrical and chemical industries, the printing, perfumery and other industries. By the end of the Five-Year Plan the U.S.S.R. will become the largest producer of ozocerite.

Industrial Production, etc.

Power Stations : A hundred and fifteen new thermal and hydro-electric power stations of 9,000 kilowatts aggregate capacity have been built in the Ukraine in the first six months of this year.

A huge hydro-electric power station to supply the Urals with electricity in 1950 is under construction on the River Kama, tributary of the Volga. The Kama, besides being one of the deepest and longest (1,250 miles) rivers in the Soviet Union, is one of the country's most important waterways. The turbines and generators will be established in the body of the ferro-concrete dam, instead of inside a building. This will both reduce construction costs and guard against accidents.

A power station of this type can work at full capacity during floodtides when ordinary stations have to reduce their capacity 10 to 15 per cent.

Railway Wagons : Output of railway wagons now exceeds the pre-war level.

Automobiles : Ten new automobile and assembly works are in process of construction. By 1950 the Stalin Plant in Moscow will be turning out 100,000 cars annually ; the plant at Gorki will reach an output of almost a quarter of a million lorries and cars. Out-of-date machinery in existing works is being discarded for the latest models ; the production lines are being modernised. The industry is supported by five big research institutes which are responsible for the rapid and frequent introduction of improvements. Collaboration between the engineers of the Gorki Plant and specialists of the institutes has led to the production of the excellent new lorries and passenger cars now coming off the conveyor of this works.

A New Nitrate Fertiliser Plant is under construction in the Ukrainian town of Lisichansk.

Under the Five-Year Plan 11,000 miles of roads for carrying timber are to be built in the forests of the North, the North-west, the Urals and other districts. Narrow-gauge railways still serve as the principal means of mechanised timber transportation, but one-track ropeways and roads with wooden rails for the transportation of timber in automobile-drawn trains, as well as ice roads in winter, are used on an ever wider scale.

Paper : By the beginning of 1948 all paper mills demolished by the Germans will be re-commissioned. Soviet engineering plants have supplied all the pulp and paper mills with the necessary equipment. The launching of new paper mills in Siberia and in the north of the European part of the Soviet Union will push production to the pre-war level in 1948.

The glass industry has regained its pre-war level of production. This year the people will receive over 350 million glassware articles, including 58 new types. By 1950 the country's glassware production will be double that of 1940.

More Cigarettes : Seventy-five thousand million cigarettes—50 per cent. more than last year and three times more than in 1945—was the promise made by workers of the Soviet tobacco industry in a letter to the press, and fulfilled.

More Clothes : Output of wool fabrics in the U.S.S.R. during the first seven months of 1947 was 39 per cent. more than in the same period of 1946. Production of fabrics for overcoats and suits was 50 per cent. higher.

Footwear : The output of footwear in 1947 increased by 50 per cent.

Babies' Woollies : The production of children's and babies' woollies has increased by over 50 per cent. and of socks and stockings by almost 70 per cent. New equipment which is being installed will give an additional 57 million pairs of stockings annually.

Mechanised Mining : In 1940 94.8 per cent. of the total coal output was mechanised in the Soviet Union.

Safety in Mines : Underground work in the mines is permitted only when the content of gas and noxious coal dust is so insignificant that it is practically harmless. The content of explosive gas or methane at the coal face must never exceed two per cent., while in the current of air issuing from a mine it must be below one per cent. The maximum concentrations of carbon monoxide, oxide of nitrogen, sulphur dioxide, or hydrogen sulphide is less than one ten-thousandth per cent. Ventilation technique ensures an oxygen content of no less than 20 per cent. by volume in the mine. The maximum content of carbon dioxide permitted in Soviet mines is one-half per cent. ; in Britain it is one and one-quarter per cent. Coal seams containing more than 10 per cent. of volatile substances are considered dangerous.

All safety and labour protection requirements are compulsory for every mine.

Rewards : For the successful fulfilment of Government assignments in the construction of the 524 mile Saratov-Moscow gas pipe-line and the organisation of a gas supply to Moscow and Saratov, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. has decorated 550 builders of the project with orders and medals.

Agriculture

Fodder Supply : The planned increase in head of cattle by 5,200,000 within one year was accompanied by an expansion of the area sown to fodder grasses exceeding 12.5 million acres.

New orchards covering 67,000 acres were planted this year on the collective farms of the U.S.S.R. On collective farms in the Russian Federation, 300,000 acres of new orchards are to be planted under the Five-Year Plan. Every collective and State farm will have its own orchard of about 125 acres. Orchards are to be planted on a large scale in the Urals and Siberia.

Large Scale Irrigation : From 1948 to 1952, in the Central Regions of the R.S.F.S.R., constructions allowing for the irrigation of 1,500,000 acres will be built. Irrigated agriculture, which guarantees high yields under any weather conditions, is to be adopted by 75 per cent. of the collective farms in the Voronezh, Kursk, Orel, Tambov and other Regions by the end of the period.

The irrigation construction will be accompanied by power development. Small hydro-electric stations are to be erected on all rivers and canals. In time all collective farms in the central grain regions of the Soviet Union will adopt the irrigated agriculture and will be fully electrified.

Development by irrigation of the Amu-Darya river valley envisages the building of a number of canals of great length. The Kara-Kum Canal, on the left bank of the river, will be 625 miles long, crossing the fertile lands of the eastern coast of the Caspian Sea. The Amu-Darya Canal, on the right bank of the river, will run for 310 miles through territories suitable for cotton-growing, and will partially irrigate the Kyzyl-Kum steppe.

Existing irrigation systems of the Kashka-Darya, Zeravshan and the Bokhara Oasis are to be improved. This utilisation of the Amu-Darya waters will add to Uzbekistan, Turkmenia and Tadzhikistan some 8,700,000 acres of irrigated land suitable for orchards, cotton and sub-tropical plants.

Reclamation of Colchis : Large scale land reclamation work is in progress in Colchis, the plain of the Rion River valley in Georgia. The Colchis swamps will be transformed into a rich land of sub-tropical agriculture, with 50,000 acres under cultivation in 1950. On the 22,000 acres of marshland already reclaimed, grapes, citrus and other fruits are growing. According to preliminary estimates, the Colchis Plain when fully reclaimed will yield 4,000 million citrus fruits, 20,000 tons of other sub-tropical fruits, and large quantities of tea and grapes.

New High-Yield Crops : Thirty Soviet agricultural scientists have patented new high-yield varieties of crops. They constitute some of the 3,000 varieties of grain, fruit, vegetables, oil-seed, flax, cotton, etc., now under test-cultivation in the country's 5,000 experimental fields and institutions. All of them are superior to their predecessors in yield and quality.

Sugar-Cane in Uzbekistan : The first Soviet sugar-cane State farm, in the Denau district of Uzbekistan, has shown good results in its two years' existence in the Surkhan-Darya valley. The cane has acclimatised well, and is yielding a rich harvest on irrigated fields.

Sunflower-Pear Sugar : I. M. Marchenko, a Kharkov geneticist, claims to have succeeded in growing a sugar-bearing hybrid by crossing sunflower with topinambura (ground pear). Mr. Marchenko has harvested 22 tons of tubers per acre.

Food

Sugar : The Soviet sugar-beet harvest was about four times as large as in 1946 and in many districts even higher than in the best pre-war years. This season, 124 sugar mills—28 more

than in 1946—will be working in the Ukraine. The industrial capacity of the sugar mills will reach 70 per cent. of the pre-war level.

The production of margarine for 1947 will be 121 per cent. and of vegetable oil 24 per cent. up on 1946. New vegetable oil mills and three large margarine factories were started in the Ukraine and the Russian Federation in September. The canned foods industry will raise its output by 10 per cent. Plants destroyed during the war have been restored to the extent of 85 per cent. Many new canneries are being built in the Far East, the Soviet Baltic Republics and the Ukraine. By the beginning of 1948 the capacity of the Soviet canning industry will reach the pre-war level.

During the war 75 new food factories were built in the eastern districts. Up to 1947, 2,668 food factories have been restored, including 151 sugar refineries, 95 oil mills, 597 bread bakeries, 34 confectionery factories, etc. From 1943-1946 the total production of the food industry increased by 50 per cent., while the output of sugar grew four-fold, vegetable oil by 50 per cent., margarine by 70 per cent.

Transport

In Central Asia a new railway 385 miles long is being built between the towns of Charjow and Kungrad, on the lower reaches of the Amu-Darya. The current Five-Year Plan includes a new railway line to cross the Bet-Pak-Dala (the "Hungry Desert") and link by rail route the southern districts of Kazakhstan, the largest Republic in Central Asia, with the northern districts bordering on Siberia.

Housing

Rural Housing : Over 800,000 houses have been repaired or built in the rural communities of the Russian Federation. Four million farmers have received new, well-built homes.

In the Byelorussian Soviet Republic some 40,000 homes for collective farmers are under construction. A total of 260,000 have been built since liberation, in addition to 13,000 farm buildings and nearly 5,000 premises for social and cultural needs. In the last two years alone over 11 million cubic metres of timber have been supplied to the Byelorussian peasants as well as considerable long-term loans.

Religion

New Churches : Premises for 62 new churches in various regions of the Soviet Union are being provided for the Orthodox Church. Forty church buildings were turned over to the Moscow Patriarchy early this year.

Since its appointment, the Council for the Affairs of the Russian Orthodox Church has granted several thousand requests for buildings which are given free of charge and for permanent use.

The Baptists : There are over 3,000 Baptist chapels in the U.S.S.R. The Moscow Chapel holds over 2,000 worshippers. The Baptist journal "Bratski Vestnik" is on sale in every city. Many Baptists were decorated for distinction in battle in the war against Germany.

Soviet Science in the New Five Year Plan

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questions of the general circulation of the atmosphere and on the important problem of weather forecasting.

Much importance must be attached to co-operation and close contact between the work of our geophysicists and that of the extensive organisation of the hydro-meteorological service. Only in this way is it possible to assure conformity between our work and the many important problems that the government has put to geophysics.

The general plan of the Academy as regards geology is mainly directed towards problems concerning the geology of the Soviet Union. But, at the same time, the geology of the Academy is not forgetful of the wider questions of more than local significance. The plan pays particular attention to questions of geological structure and to present-day geological and physico-geographical processes.

Examples of such studies are the investigation of the Kamchatka-Kurile crescent and the Pacific area. The investigation of the northern part of the Pacific ocean, by means of special expeditions organised by the Academy of Sciences, belongs to this group of problems. Such expeditions will include biological, chemical, physical and geological studies. Likewise to this group belongs the organisation of investigations dealing with Caspian problems, the reasons for the variation in level of the latter sea. Special attention is likewise paid to present-day geological processes, for example volcanic activity and processes relating to the recent past. Provision is made for intensifying work on the geology of petroleum. Work will be continued on the traditional themes of questions dealing with permanently frozen areas and with geochemistry.

As in the case of geophysics it should be noted that the effectiveness of geological work in the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. will depend to a considerable extent on effective co-operation with the organisations of the Ministry of Geology of the U.S.S.R.

An important place in our plan is occupied by questions of soil science, the geography of soils, processes of soil formation and the properties of soils. There is provision for the study of the problem of "Geography and cartography of soils", which is a further development of the geographic-genetic trend of soil science as formulated by Dokuchaev. The compilation of a government soil map is among the topics included.

Considerable attention will be paid to the development of the study of the origin and evolution of soils.

A new departure is in connection with problems of the mineralogical composition of soils and the genesis of soil minerals. The setting of this problem is a revival of the theoretical trend of soil science which, in its time, was commenced by academicians K. D. Glinka and V. I. Vernadski.

A series of important problems is linked with the investigation of physico-chemical processes in soils, biological processes therein and likewise with the phenomena of the erosion of soil and

with the development of means to combat this latter. Provision is made for the development of the biological trend in soil science and also for a completely new department dealing with the study of soil erosion by water and wind.

Our geographers have the responsible task of compiling, within the next five years, the "Geography of the U.S.S.R." The basic problems in the sphere of geographical science are the following:

1.—The compilation of a major work dealing with the geography of our homeland. ("Geography of the U.S.S.R.")

2.—The investigation of the law governing the growth of a physico-geographical medium by means of the study of fundamental types of physico-geographical processes of the drying of the globe and of its component parts.

3.—The study of the relief of the U.S.S.R. as one of the major parts of a complex physico-geographic process governing contemporary natural conditions. The investigation of the geography of foreign countries, with respect to various questions, is envisaged.

Fundamental investigations regarding the flora and fauna of the U.S.S.R. belong, of course, to the group of problems concerned with the study of the globe and a complex group of expeditionary work has been formulated by our Soviet to study the productive powers that are available, especially in connection with the government's five year plan.

TECHNICAL SCIENCES

IT should immediately be pointed out that the plan of the section of technical sciences is by no means a complete programme of all the technical work that is to be included in the plan of the Academy.

It is well known that the question of research on technical subjects, within the Academy, is not by any means yet clear. Many hold the view that technology is inherently of a subsidiary character and that for a correct development of technical research there is required a quite different type of material resources, and number of investigators, than those which are at the disposal of the Academy.

In the majority of cases the Academy is precluded from the possibility of setting up even a relatively simple example of a technical plant which has been designed within its walls. Nor is it capable of constructing machines or of accumulating sufficient new chemical material for technical trials; or a sufficient quantity of seed for obtaining botanical results on a practical scale, etc.

From such facts the conclusion is drawn that technology has no place in the Academy of Sciences and that it should be encouraged in large subsidiary institutes under the aegis of the corresponding ministry. In our opinion such a point of view is erroneous. Between a wide so-called "pure" scientific investigation and its technical introduction into practice there are always a number of intermediate and very important steps, which are in themselves very far removed from the stage of industrial application. Such steps, undoubtedly technical in substance, but still removed from the definite plant stage, should be developed within the Academy of Sciences and can undoubtedly be so developed with success. I will make this point clear by reference to the proposed scientific plan.

We have noted a group of important investigations dealing with problems of mechanics, with problems of the stability of movement and the theory of oscillations, on aerodynamics and gas dynamics, on the theory of elasticity, the theory of plasticity and theoretical problems of structural mechanics, the aerodynamics of movement at high speeds. There is no doubt that all these problems are technical ones, but at the same time they cannot be considered as being subsidiary ones. We have before us what seems to me to be a very typical example of those technical problems which should and must be successfully worked out in the Academy of Sciences. To such very general, but at the same time clearly technical problems, belong the problems, included in the plan, of the general theory of mechanisms and machines, the theory of the strength of machines and their component parts and the friction and wear in machines.

The development of many branches of technology is directly connected with the solution of a series of questions dealing with the stability of motion and the oscillation of mechanical systems. The first investigations on the stability of motion will be in relation to the phenomena which occur when bodies are in motion at high velocities (fast and jet-propelled aircraft, rockets). The trend of work on the theory of oscillations is determined by problems of the mechanisation of production methods and automatic control. In this field there arises the investigation of problems connected with the calculation and operation of gyroscopic equipment, automatic pilots, automatic drive and also the further development of the theory of control.

In connection with the increase in the speed of aircraft and the requirements of artillery, special importance attaches to the study of questions dealing with aerodynamics in various directions. The plan allows for the investigation of the streamlining of the contours of aircraft, wing theory in a non-stationary air stream, for the improvement of the method of calculating the most effective design and for the application of Chapluigin's method to the calculation of nozzles for aircraft, rocket propulsion and gas turbines. Considerable importance is to be attached to research on plastic deformation, linked up with calculations on the components of uniflow boilers, steam and gas turbines, combustion chambers and nozzles of reaction motors and the hulls of ships and aircraft.

Provision is made for the further development of the theory of small elasto-plastic deformation in metals, the study of the state of a metal at

high pressures and in a fluctuating high temperature zone, the study of thin-walled metallic constructional parts in the assembly of plant and machinery, the study of the behaviour of metals in explosions, under the influence of pressure and in armour-piercing tests. The production of new types of machines demands the further development of research work on the improvement of methods of calculating machine components to the requisite degree of strength and resistance to fluctuating and impact loads.

In contemporary electrical engineering much importance is attached to the problem of transmitting high voltage electrical energy over long distances. Scientific research in this field will be directed towards a study of the physical processes that occur in high voltage discharges and also towards the development of constructional principles for high voltage transformers and methods of protection against flashbacks due to short circuits and voltage surges.

New forms of radio technology, especially radio-location, require the extensive investigation of the propagation of the whole range of metre-length, centimetre-length and even millimetre-length waves. Here particular importance must be given to investigations on : (a) the propagation of radio waves in a medium having a variable refractive index ; (b) the absorption of short waves in the ionosphere ; and (c) the co-axial cable.

The continually growing part played in radio communications and radio-location by the shortest radio waves indicates the necessity for utilising in the field of radio, to a very large extent, directional emission of radio waves.

In the plan of work attention is drawn to the complex problems of underground gasification of coal, high-pressure and temperature steam, gas turbines and reaction (jet) motors.

Fundamental work in the sphere of gas turbines and reaction motors includes the investigation of the heat balance of gas turbines and jet engines, the combustion processes, methods for improving the heat exchange at high temperatures and velocities of the gas stream, the search for refractory materials, research on the problem of resonance and vibration and methods for automatic control and flight direction.

The development within the Academy of Sciences of such important branches of technology as electrical engineering, electric welding, automatic and tele-mechanics, the physics of heat, metallurgy and the study of metals, mining technology, hydraulics is, of course, only feasible under suitable basic conditions, i.e., buildings and equipment. This does not, however, mean that we have to build enormous institutes having thousands of workers and huge workshops and laboratories. The other extreme, however, the creation of institutes "in the blue" is likewise at the moment unattainable. The development of technical work within the Academy of Sciences must and can only proceed step by step as the material conditions of our institutes improve.

Let us now pass from philosophy, mathematics, natural sciences, the problems of our planet, questions of technology, to man himself, to the humanitarian studies.

HISTORY

OUR historians have put forward a very large, even, it might almost be said, an excessively large, programme of work.

As a foundation of the plan lie the following principal postulates: the necessity for enlarging the study of the history of the Russian people and of other nations of the Soviet Union, indicating the characteristic feature of the historical development of our government; linked up with this is the need for increasing the study of our homeland in its archaeological and ethnographical aspects and also from the point of view of the spread of science, art and culture.

Special attention should be devoted to the history of Soviet power and the history of its fight for the freedom and independence of socialist government. It is necessary that the significance of Marxist-Leninist philosophy should be clarified in all directions and that its advantages over bourgeois philosophical systems be explained. The fascist and pro-fascist tendencies in these latter should be revealed. The development of democratic conceptions in foreign countries should be subjected to scientific analysis whilst, in contrast, there should also be examined the reactionary ideas which lead to the development of fascism and which, in certain cases, still survive today.

Within the work that is included in the five year plan may be mentioned important educational works in the history of the Russian government in feudal times, on the social-economic history of the feudal period, the social economic history of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, a series of works on the history of the Russian revolutionary movement and on Russian social thought, on Russian diplomacy and foreign policy, on the history of the great October social revolution and the Soviet government, and on the history of the great patriotic war.

Considerable attention is likewise devoted to the history of Europe and America and to that of Eastern countries.

Major works are planned on the history of philosophy and the history of art.

LINGUISTICS

OUR Academy has always been a centre for linguistic studies. It is therefore natural that there should be in our plan an important place for language study problems, especially problems concerning the study of the Russian language.

Let us hope that the tasks provided for in the plan, and which are of very great interest, the multi-volume "Dictionary of contemporary Literary Russian" and the "Historical Dictionary of the Russian Language" will be fulfilled within the indicated scope.

Much importance must be attached to the compilation of grammars and dictionaries of the languages of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. and

neighbouring countries, and likewise the development of important problems of ancient and modern orientalism. For instance, a prominent place in the plan is occupied by the compilation of scientific grammars and the historical investigation of the individual languages of the U.S.S.R. and foreign countries.

In the plan of dictionary work relating to eastern languages there are included major dictionaries of ancient Turkish, Chinese-Russian and Hindi-Russian. The plan for language study deserves approbation and especial attention, and everything must be done to enable it to be fulfilled.

LITERARY STUDY

THE plan for literary studies is a very wide one. It includes several important works: the 10-volume "History of Russian Literature", the "History of Russian Soviet Literature", "History of Russian Lyrics", and a series of separate monographs, which are of course to a certain extent subjective and can hardly be discussed individually.

Much importance must be attached to the outlines of the history of the literature of foreign countries, which are mentioned in the plan. These include Bulgarian and others.

The work on the publication of the Russian classics has been very substantially planned. It is proposed to issue a complete collection of the works of M. Yu. Lermontov, V. G. Belinskii, A. M. Gor'ki. Unfortunately, for some reason, the plan does not include a complete collection of the works of A. S. Pushkin, the publication of which, as is well known to my audience, is not yet complete.

Surprise is likewise caused by the absence from the list of the works of such a leading light of our science and literature as M. V. Lomonosov. It is high time that the Academy should consider the publication of a good and reasonably priced edition of the works of Lomonosov; this should in the near future be the concern not only of the institute of literature.

As regards Western literature there is planned the preparation of "History of English Literature" (final volume), "History of Scandinavian Literature", "History of Spanish Literature", "History of Italian Literature", "History of German Literature" and a series of major monographs.

As regards Eastern literature the plan includes "Investigations into the History of Chinese Literature", "History of Japanese Literature", "History of Persian Literature", "Outlines of Arabian Literature". There are also being prepared for scientific publication separate eastern memoirs of historical significance. Among these may be mentioned: Mongolian chronicles, the Mongolian epic trilogy, "Occult Tales", "Dzhangariada" and "Geseriada", a memoir on the ancient literature of India, "Ramayana", a memoir on ancient China, one on Egypt, on ancient Greek papyri and others.

A special section is devoted to collective works of a great theoretical nature. To this group

belong: "History of the Trend of Russian Literary Thought", "History of Western Literary Criticism and Literary Trends", "History of Poetical Studies".

ECONOMICS AND LAW

THE programme of the economists is very full and includes the most important questions regarding the economics of the Soviet government and of world trade.

We find in it investigations on questions of the economic organisational functions of the Soviet government, on problems of socialist ownership, on questions regarding the material-productive basis of socialism, on planning problems, on questions of cost and money in the U.S.S.R. Mention is made of investigations on the pay of labour in the U.S.S.R., the theory of the cost accounting method of managing an undertaking, Soviet trade, industrialisation. Provision is made for some work on the economics of railway transport. Work on methods of increasing the productivity of agricultural labour will be of considerable significance.

In the field of world trade and world politics work is mentioned on the investigations of political changes in the capitalist world as a result of the second world war.

In the forefront here lies the investigation of post-war monopolistic capitalism and especially the position of the working class and that of the peoples of colonial and dependent countries. To this section also belongs the study of certain problems in the theory and history of the political economy of capitalism.

We hope that our institutes working on economic questions will find a way to be of real assistance in the fulfilment of the government's five year plan.

In the plans of the institute of law there are included important themes concerning the Soviet government, on legal relationships in a socialist society, right of property in the U.S.S.R., right to work and reward of labour. Taking priority in this section is the working out of questions relating to Soviet government and law, in conjunction with problems of the development of Soviet social structure (Soviet law and socialist education) in legal relationships in a socialist.

Mention is made of an investigation on guilt in Soviet criminal law. A series of problems relates to topical questions of international law.

CONCLUSION

WITH this I must conclude my rapid survey of the Academy's plan. But even from this very brief survey it is clear how big and comprehensive that plan is.

The plan is big and arduous. Its fulfilment is only feasible by a large mobilisation of our forces. In addition to working with clarity and discipline the crucial factor in many cases is scientific inspiration and enthusiasm. But,

inspiration cannot be planned, it can only be hoped for.

The second condition is a material one: scientific equipment, materials, books, buildings. The government has come more than half-way to meeting science. The budget for 1946 has granted the Academy considerable sums for constructional work and for equipment. The living conditions of scientific workers have improved in a marked manner.

In this connection prizes for scientific work are of very great importance. The Stalin prizes for outstanding work in the field of science, for the invention and introduction of improvements in productive methods have a powerful beneficial effect on the development of science and technology in the entire Union.

Furthermore, in order to raise the creative possibilities and effectiveness of the work of the senior scientific collaborators of the Academy the presidium of the Academy of Sciences has defined more closely the qualifications for those claiming the title of senior scientific collaborator. This title is assigned by the presidium to scientists having a doctor's degree or else that of bachelor of science. In the latter case it is necessary to have had not less than five years of scientific activity and to have accomplished definite scientific work after having obtained the bachelor's degree, as evidence of the further scientific attainments of the scientist.

Within the last few months the presidium has examined the cases of some hundreds of scientists who have applied for the title of senior scientific collaborator, and has introduced definite amendments in the qualifications of persons obtaining this distinction; these amendments have sometimes not been in agreement with the views of the institutes.

Finally, the question has recently been examined of the preparation of junior scientific teams, undergraduates and graduates, within the next five years. It was decided to increase the training of undergraduates and graduates in the Academy, and not only for the Academy itself. Particular attention was paid to the problem of ensuring the selection of particularly gifted personnel for university training. This will assist the Academy of Sciences in recruiting scientific collaborators from highly-gifted young people.

A vital part in the effectiveness of the Academy is played by the labours of its leaders, academicians, corresponding members, directors of scientific institutions. The Academy is passing through such a vital phase of its development that there can be no question of having at the head of a scientific organisation, institute, section or laboratory, a scientist who, for any reason, does not direct his scientific institution by daily contact and who does not work in it tenaciously and systematically. The effectiveness of a scientific institution is a reflection of the work of its director.

The significance of science in recent years, in our view, in the view not only of scientists but of the man in the street, has increased to such an extent that we are confident in the help of the entire country and in that of the entire Soviet people. We are convinced that the Academy of Sciences, together with the other scientific institutions of our Fatherland and with the higher centres of education, with the subsidiary institutes, will cope with the difficult tasks that have been set before our science.

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Sergei Vavilov, President of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.



Above : The premises of the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences
at Lenin Hills, Moscow.

Below : The new buildings to house the Academy of Sciences which have been
completed on the bank of the Moscow River.



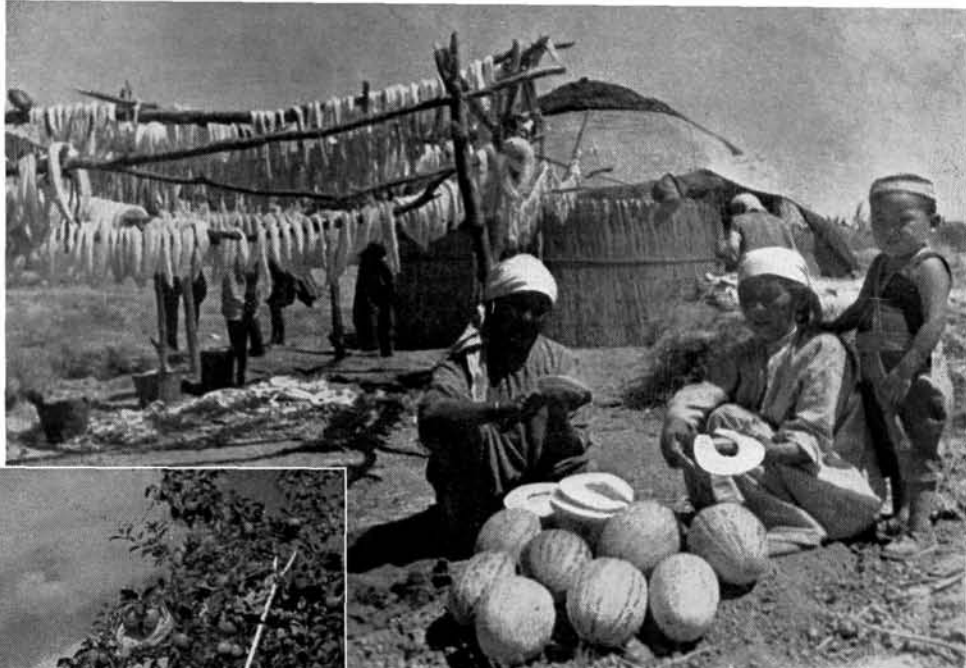
A woman laboratory assistant, Zuleika Saliyeva, at the cotton-producing Ishtykot collective farm in South Kazakhstan Region.



This woman sheep farmer is using electric shears on the Kostek sheep-breeding State farm in the Alma-Ata Region.

Sacks of grain being loaded at the Timiryazev farm for delivery to the State.





Pictures from Kazakhstan :—

Above : Melons being dried off at the Shaülder State Farm in the Kzyl-Kum desert.

Left : Gathering apples in the Orchard of the “ Second Five-Year Plan.”

Below : Part of the apple harvest on the “ Ray of the East ” collective Farm.



WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN THE SOVIET STATE

THE protection of the home and family ranks as one of the first objectives of Soviet social policy.

In thirty years immeasurable advances have been made in caring for children and in enlarging the status of women.

On this and the following seven pages

are pictures illustrating the care which the Soviet Union devotes to its children and the home surroundings in which they grow up.

The pictures also illustrate the great variety of roles filled by women in all spheres of Soviet life.



In the Kindergarten of a Moscow tobacco factory.



Maria Sarycheva, Deputy
Chairman of the Moscow
City Soviet.

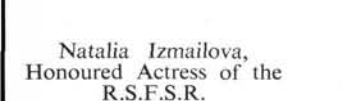


Alexandra Belkina, Chair-
man of the Sverdlov district
Soviet of Moscow.

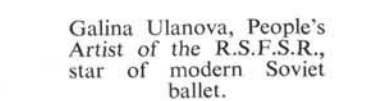


Evgenia Istrina, Deputy
Director of the Institute of
the Russian Language of
the Academy of Science of
the U.S.S.R.

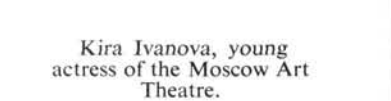
Six Soviet Women who have achieved fame in different
spheres of national life.



Natalia Izmailova,
Honoured Actress of the
R.S.F.S.R.



Galina Ulanova, People's
Artist of the R.S.F.S.R.,
star of modern Soviet
ballet.



Kira Ivanova, young
actress of the Moscow Art
Theatre.



Famous woman flyer—Guards Major Evdokia Nikulina, Hero of the Soviet Union, inspects her machine.



Two women scientists, geologist Saradghan Shorina and her friend (a chemical engineer) choose a dress length.

Below : Preparing children's meals in a kindergarten. Inset : At Moscow Children's Central Club famous author A. Fadeyev autographs one of his books for a young reader.



The Moscow Children's Central Club has a book exhibition on permanent display, with examples of Russian, Soviet and Western literature.





Above : A sanatorium for tubercular children
near Moscow.

Below : In a Moscow nursery.





Above : Nina Klyueva, professor of Microbiology, Deputy to Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.

Below : In the Home for Stage Veterans.





An evening gown of light cloth
in the display of Soviet fashions
for Spring and Summer of 1947.



Above : Another picture of Guards
Major Evdokia Nikulina.

Below : Zinaida Troitskaya, a
woman railway technician, spends
her free time with her daughter.



N. Polevaya-Mansfield, a well-known actress, who sings English, Scottish and Irish national songs.



Children in a home enjoy a puppet show.

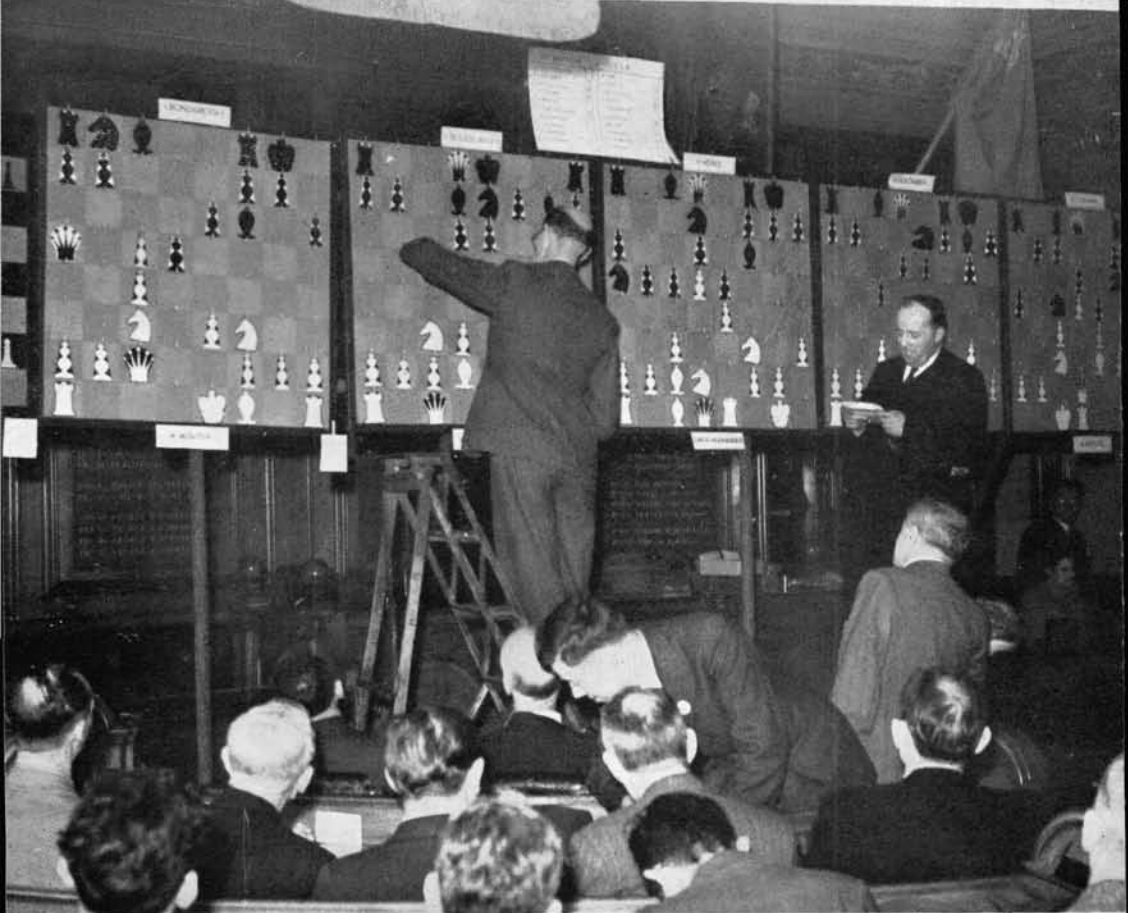




Above : At the opening of the chess match between Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. Mr. George Tomlinson, Minister of Education, and the Mayor of Holborn (on either side of microphone) listen to Mr. V. N. Pavlov, Counsellor of the Soviet Embassy.

Below : Igor Bondarevsky and William Winter.



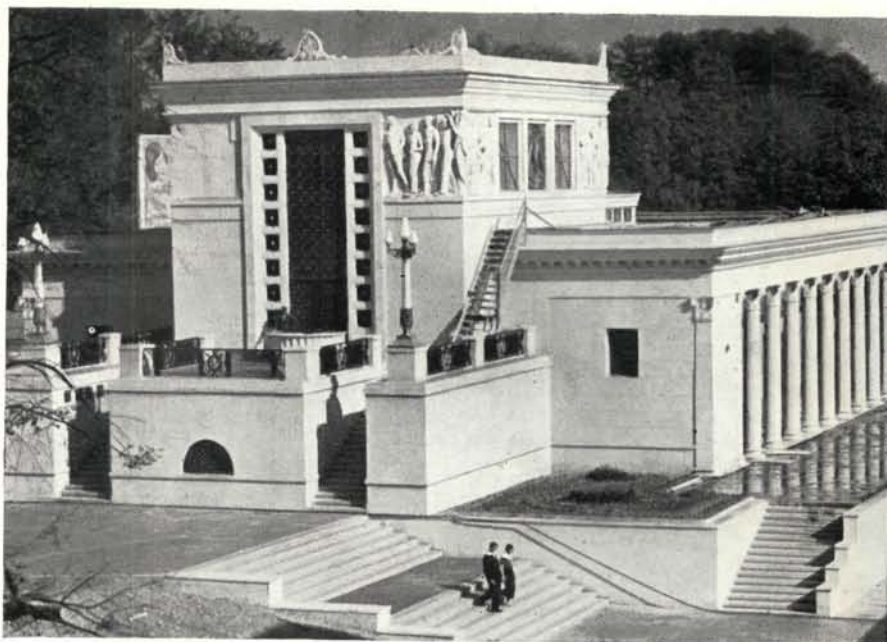


Above : Demonstration boards in the Council Chamber of Holborn Town Hall reproduce the moves for a large crowd of spectators.

Below : C. H. O'D. Alexander (Great Britain), and Paul Keres (U.S.S.R.).



Round the U.S.S.R. in Pictures



Above : Entrance to the Dynamo Underground Station, Moscow.

Below : Nabatya Pavlovna Kuklina, deputy of the Supreme Soviet and member of the government Council for collective Farms, talks to the cultivators.



Cars leaving the conveyor belt at the Gorki factory.



The dairy farm of the "Vrevsky" collective farm in the Uzbek S.S.R.

Boy and girl pupils of a factory apprentices school doing practice work in the Ferg-hana silk reeling mills, Uzbek, S.S.R.

